

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

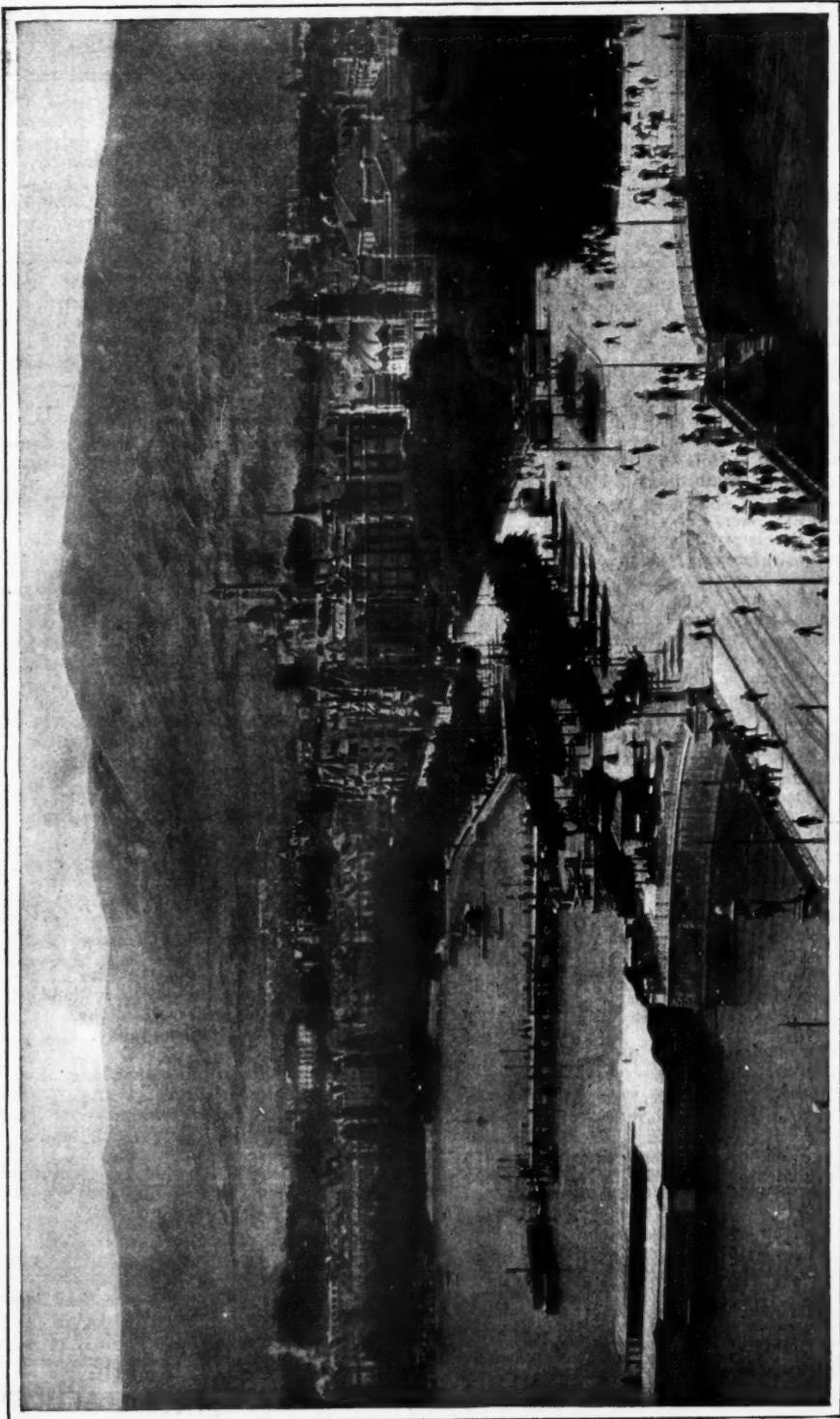
CONTENTS FOR MAY, 1919

Geneva, Seat of the Future League of Nations	450	With portrait of Samuel T. Dutton	480
..... <i>Frontispiece</i>			
The Progress of the World—			
Europe Only a Year Ago.....	451		
The Dramatic Reversal.....	451		
Victory the Outstanding Fact.....	451		
“Liquidating” a Tedious Process.....	452		
Outlines of Peace.....	452		
Acceptance of American Principles.....	452		
Considerate Conquerors.....	453		
German Liberty Conceded.....	453		
France Entitled to Security.....	453		
The New Europe Emerging.....	454		
Armistice Basis Confirmed.....	454		
Poland on the Map.....	454		
Importance of Details.....	454		
Settling Up the South Slavs.....	455		
Adriatic Outlets.....	455		
Compromises Necessary.....	456		
Business Problems Delayed.....	456		
Economic Conference Needed.....	456		
Belgium in Suspense.....	457		
Where Paris Has Failed.....	457		
Nations and the Peace League.....	458		
American and European Freedom.....	458		
Bohemia Claims Our Friendship.....	458		
Four Considerable Countries.....	458		
Ample Sovereignty Remains.....	458		
The League a Practical Affair for Europe.....	459		
Ending Wars Is the Supreme Object.....	459		
Nations Will Grow and Change.....	460		
The League Approved.....	460		
Monroe Doctrine Stands.....	461		
American and British Spheres.....	461		
Two Stable Groupings.....	462		
Politics versus Economics.....	462		
Business the Needed Remedy.....	462		
Shifting Moods at Paris.....	463		
Pouncing on the Umpire.....	463		
Bolshevism Following Autocracy.....	463		
Labor's Salutary Methods.....	464		
Labor Questions at Paris.....	464		
Dealing with Human Assets.....	465		
National Economy Required.....	465		
Army Bills in Future.....	465		
The War Veterans and “T. R., Jr.”.....	466		
Our Defense Problems.....	466		
The “Victory” Loan Under Way.....	468		
Our Debt Compared to Europe's.....	468		
The Plight of the Railroads.....	469		
England's Similar Experience.....	470		
Our Stupendous Crop of Wheat.....	470		
With portraits, cartoons, and other illustrations			
Record of Current Events.....	471		
With illustrations			
The Peace Conference in Cartoons.....	475		

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A VIEW OF GENEVA, THE SWISS CITY WHICH HAS BEEN SELECTED AS THE SEAT OF THE FUTURE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

(The photograph shows one of the numerous bridges crossing the river Rhone)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Europe
Only a
Year Ago*

A year ago the arrogance of Germany, feeding upon military success, was at a high point, and there was little further attempt to disguise Teutonic war aims. The program had developed rapidly, and was supported almost unanimously. There will, perhaps, be a difference of opinion among conscientious historians regarding the motives that had prevailed in Germany when the war was launched in 1914. Obviously it was expected that England would keep out; that France would be overcome within a few weeks; that Russia's collapse would ensure the success of the Pan-German program as regards the Balkans and Turkey, and that indemnities would be exacted. But whatever the conscious and definite aims of the German people were in 1914, there is no doubt at all as to what those aims had become in the spring and early summer of last year. The German Empire was regarded as permanently extended, to include great portions of what had been Russian territory. Finland had been made a German vassal; there was no intention of giving up Antwerp; parts of France were to have been annexed; an immense colonial empire was to have been acquired in Asia and Africa; the British navy was to have been surrendered; and the United States was to have been compelled to pay an indemnity to Germany that would have made the war financially profitable for the nation that had ventured to force its leadership upon the world.

The Dramatic Reversal
The turn in military fortunes, following Allied unity of command and the arrival of two million American troops, will through centuries to come be regarded as among the most dramatic happenings of all recorded history. Early in October, if not sooner, the German

military leaders knew that the structure they had been building was about to collapse. There followed Germany's appeal to President Wilson for armistice terms; and what ensued is known to everybody. Although the course of events is so familiar, however, it is necessary to consider it all with one's reasoning faculties, in order that the daily news from Europe may not be too bewildering. The chief landmark to keep in view is the military victory—a supreme benefit the value of which will not be sacrificed. Germany came very near winning the war a year ago; and that would have been an appalling thing for Europe and also for America. The defeat of Germany filled us with joy and gratitude six months ago, and those sentiments were justified. We should not be so short-sighted as to permit minor difficulties and disturbances to darken the skies that were made clear by Germany's defeat, and by the end of the war, last November.

Victory the Outstanding Fact

Although after the tides of battle began to turn, with General Foch's successes in France, we were confident that Germany had lost the war, it was the general opinion that the fighting would go on until the summer of the present year. Our participation had been serious, and, relatively to the numbers of our men engaged and the length of the period of actual fighting, our losses were heavy. Nevertheless, they were small in the aggregate as compared with what they would have been if the finish of the war had come this year instead of last. Those who keep their heads and think carefully are not only thankful, then, that we were spared the calamity of a German victory, but that Germany's full defeat came in 1918 rather than in 1919. These are great outstanding facts that nothing can alter.

"Liquidating," a Tediou
Process Again, everybody who had conceived of the war in its magnitude and its intensity had known all along that it could not be "liquidated" easily, and that the settlements following it would involve much discussion and require the acceptance of compromises. It is natural enough that those who have been following closely the work of the Conference at Paris should at times have lost their sense of perspective, and should have been deeply anxious. When the results stand out and are visible as a series of things achieved, however, it is likely that praise will be far more general than blame. It was hardly possible to arrive at conclusions more rapidly, where so many nations were concerned. Every portion of the globe where there is organized human society is consciously affected by the work of the Peace Conference. We should not do justice to this gathering of the nations at Paris if we did not remember that for about five months it has been in essential fact a continuance of the coöperative work of the Allies, whose main purpose was to find deliverance from the menace of force and to establish not merely the theory but also the practice of justice as the rule among men.

Outlines of Peace The same principles which led the United States into the war have made it necessary for this country to have a part in the adjustments following the war. The whole German nation had accepted the view a year ago that Germany was to have expansion and enrichment beyond all historical precedents by right of conquest and by power of extortion. We must keep in mind this German program, in order to do simple justice to the contrasting attitude of the victorious Allies in their efforts to fix the main outlines of reconstruction. The famous "Fourteen Points" of President Wilson had been either explicitly or virtually accepted by all of the Allies, months before the defeat of Germany, as expressing cardinal principles of world order and also as specifying some of the particular adjustments that would have to be made. When Germany asked for the terms of an armistice, it was upon the avowed basis of Allied principles as set forth by President Wilson. After five months of discussion the main outlines of Peace are confirmed, and the principal details have been written into a treaty with Germany. The outcome is better than there was reason to expect. The Allies have met all tests honorably.

Acceptance of American Principles

Earlier in the war period the Allies themselves had a different theory of the future, and were adjusting, by secret agreements among themselves, the nature and extent of the advantages they were expecting severally to obtain as a result of victory. But the breakdown of Russian Czardom and the swift rise of America's military power changed the whole theory of the world's political future. It was perfectly understood that American armies were not in Europe to help build up one set of empires at the expense of another set. The public opinion of Europe, hating war and distrusting the old-fashioned statesmen and diplomats who were trained to play the game of empire, was ready to accept American principles. The peoples everywhere were heartily tired of war and willing to follow any reasonable program for getting rid of militarism. Thus the American principles, as they had been set forth by President Wilson in speeches and addresses, were adopted as a fundamental platform, first by the Allies, and next by their chief opponents. To the future student of civilization, this achievement will stand out clearly as among the greatest of the ethical and political events of all the ages. The principles thus accepted included the protection of small nations in all their equality of rights; the abolition of those dangerous conspiracies which had grown up through secret diplomacy; the ending of those applications of science and industry to the growth of military power which had made Germany a menace; the organization of the world for the making of rules and regulations, the safety of the seas, and the orderly settlement of disputes.

Specific Advance Agreement

Among the various adjustments of a particular kind that the whole world had agreed upon in the armistice preliminaries was the rebuilding of Belgium and the full payment of France and Belgium for damages incurred. It was well understood that Alsace-Lorraine should be restored to France; that a re-united Poland should be established as an independent government at the expense of Germany and of the Austrian and Russian empires, with access to the sea at Danzig. It was understood in like manner that Bohemia should become an independent country and that there should be suitable rearrangements of territory for the benefit of Rumania, Serbia and Greece. No one who had given even small attention to the details of the questions



A SCENE AT THE PEACE CONFERENCE—WITH G. N. BARNES, BRITISH LABOR MINISTER, ADDRESSING THE BODY

involved could have expected these territorial adjustments to be worked out in a few weeks with cheerful acquiescence on all sides. The important thing to remember is that, in the moment of their overwhelming victory, the Allies adopted ordinances of self-denial, and repudiated the principles of conquest that Germany had set up for herself.

Considerate Conquerors Since so many things have been asserted from day to day regarding the aims and methods of one or another of the Allies in the discussions at Paris, it is well to have in mind the main facts, and not to be misled by the details. In the first place, then, Germany has not been in danger of being trodden under the feet of her conquerors. Only a short time ago Germany was in military and political control of Belgium, a considerable part of France, immense portions of what had been Russia, and so on. This German occupation was oppressive to the last degree, and in defiance of international law and of all recognized usage. The Allies on their part have not been and are not now oppressively occupying Germany. The Allied armies are helping to keep good order, and are not interfering with essential rights. In these times of turmoil, the occupied parts of Germany are happier and safer than the unoccupied parts. Secondly, Germany is losing no territory that properly belongs to her or that is occupied by a population which resents proposed changes. That Alsace-Lorraine should go to France, and Posen to Poland, and that a part of North Schleswig should return to Denmark, was inevitable.

German Liberty Conceded The German people within their own domains are to be allowed to govern themselves as freely as Frenchmen in France or Englishmen in England, excepting that they are not to be al-

lowed to build up a military machine intended to unsettle any of the just verdicts that are resulting from the war. For example, Germany agreed in her application for an armistice to make the necessary payments for damages inflicted, especially upon Belgium and France, but also upon British and other shipping. The final peace terms will have prescribed the methods and amounts. It will be necessary for Germany to show good faith in living up to these requirements. It will not be a light burden for her to bear, but, on the other hand, nothing that she can do by way of reparation will ever amount to much in comparison with the damage she has inflicted. There is not the slightest reason, therefore, to fear that Germany is to be oppressed or mistreated in war settlements, now practically completed.

France Entitled to Security What, then, about the French attitude which we have seen some disposition to criticize? As a result of the stupendous war effort of France, the Republic has been greatly weakened. More than any other of the larger countries engaged, France will feel the loss of her young men who have been slain; and her industrial and financial recovery will be difficult. The French see clearly that Germany's domestic war debt represents futile effort made by her own people, and that it can be paid through some form of financing that will mask what is really repudiation and that will allow Germany to make a new start. There has, indeed, swept across Germany a wave of dismay and disheartenment that seems to have deranged all forms of organized life; but the French know very well how deeply rooted are the German habits of industry and civil order, and how superior is Germany's capacity for economic success and commercial conquest. France wishes to be protected against the danger of too rapid a

recovery of Germany's prosperity and power. This is a wholly natural feeling in France, and it could not have been otherwise in view of the facts of the past five years. Mr. Lloyd George's assurance to France as expressed recently, in an interview given to Mr. Stephen Lausanne of the *Matin*, was not merely the language of a suave politician seeking momentary applause at Paris. France is entitled to all that can be obtained by way of settlement, and she is further entitled to be told that the settlement, as agreed upon, will be supported. Great Britain, as the immediate neighbor of France, is best fitted to give assurances of direct and immediate military aid in case of need. The United States would naturally support the British Empire in any crisis arising by reason of an unjust attack of Germany upon France. The precise forms of military security along the Rhine, and of financial reparation, have been under keen debate, but with assurance of just conclusions and of unbroken cordiality between France and America.

The New Europe Emerging

It is plain, then, that the larger outlines of the peace agreement were already fixed in the terms of the armistice, and have not been under discussion. If we had fought for another year, the course of proceedings in the making of peace would doubtless have been different; but all of the powers really involved in the fighting, great and small, have good reason to be thankful that bloodshed was ended earlier rather than later. The wreckage and the exhaustion caused by the war were so terrible in extent and degree that another year of the struggle would have rendered recovery a far more hopeless process. The war was brought to an end through the internal conditions of Austria-Hungary. Racial discords within the Empire paralyzed the military strength of the Hapsburgs; and the Italian victory, followed by Austria's acceptance of armistice terms, exposed Germany to attack on the Bavarian flank. The Italian armies had obtained free right-of-way and the use of Austrian railroads; so that, with the friendly help of the Bohemians, the Allies could have been bombarding Munich within a few days. Even as the war was going on, Central Europe was recrystallizing itself along national lines, and Teutonic defeat was proceeding at once from within and from without. In this process of defeat, the outlines of new sovereignties were clearly emerging.

Armistice Basis Confirmed

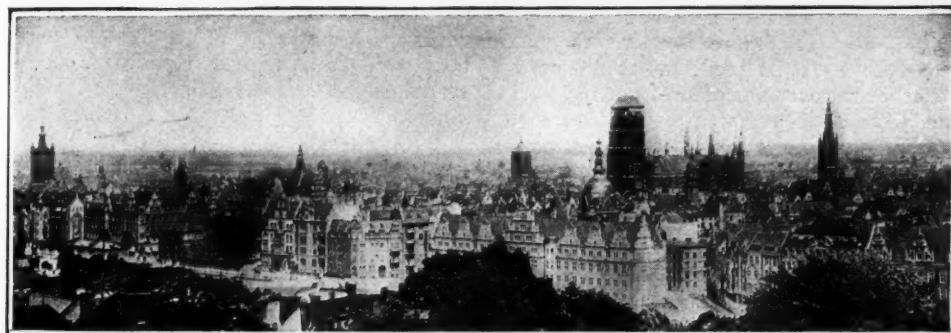
With the signing of the armistice in November it was admitted on all hands that there should be an independent Poland with due symmetry and strength; a Bohemian Republic expanded by the annexation of the Slovak provinces; a union of the Serbian-speaking territories under a South-Slav government; an enlargement of Rumania by the addition of Transylvania and several kindred districts; and a number of other reasonably definite developments. The general outlines of peace adjustments, as they appeared last November, have not only survived the critical discussion of the past six months, but have been confirmed and strengthened. The disputes of March and April were to a great extent the hopeful indications of virility, rather than the querulous demands of broken and despairing peoples. "New Europe" shows life.

Poland on the Map

The case of Poland well illustrates this view. The Poles had suffered frightfully from the war, and, like the rest of Europe, have found no magic formula which supplies ample food and restores a normal economic life. But Polish independence, which looked so dubious ten months ago, is an accomplished fact in Europe that no human being disputes. Nor is there anyone who could be so bold as to predict the future subjugation of Poland, or the historical repetition of its parceling out. What Germany, Russia, Austria and Hungary now surrender to the Polish State they do not hope to recover at any future time. Quickly accepting the major fact of her resurrection, Poland asserts herself with all the hopeful energy she has recovered. She is aroused in order to lose no possible acre of territory; to secure boundaries as favorable and "scientific" as possible; and to obtain her promised access to the sea in the form that will best suit her traditional pride as well as serve her commercial purposes.

Importance of Details

All the more substantial facts of the restored Poland having been conceded, every point of detail assumes an intense importance. Settling the details is necessary, in order that the map of Europe may be fixed in the concrete terms of rivers and mountains, of towns and seaports. A year ago it would have taken more faith than was anywhere discernible to have believed that the summer of 1919 would see the Polish flag recognized on the high seas, and a great Polish Republic with recognized



A GLIMPSE OF THE CITY OF DANZIG, ON THE BALTIC, CLAIMED BY THE POLES AS THEIR NATURAL OUTLET TO THE SEA

access to its own port on the Baltic. Yet this is one of the many things of tremendous consequence that are working their way to completion through the great mechanism of the Peace Conference at Paris. Never before in all history has the process of state-making been going forward upon plans and principles so worthy of approval. Those who have been in danger—by reason of alarming newspaper headlines—of losing their sense of proportion, should neglect the daily news for a few days and read history. They may learn that startling controversies over details in matters of negotiation have very frequently indicated that full agreement is already reached upon main issues, and that the final settlement is near at hand.

Setting Up the South Slavs Take for another instance the most stubborn of all the boundary disputes—that between the Italians and the South Slavs relating to the Adriatic coast. The trembling hope of Serbia for many years had been an ultimate union with Bosnia and Herzegovina. When Austria, after having occupied and governed Bosnia for almost forty years, proclaimed formal annexation in 1908 with the acquiescence of all the great powers, the sun of Serbia's hopes sank far below the horizon of things expected by practical men. Yet today Serbia, with the full consent of all Europe, is united with Bosnia and still further is federated with Croatia and other adjacent Serbian-speaking provinces that were formerly a part of Hungary. Still further, there is to be ample access to the sea for this expanded Serbian country known as Jugo-Slavia, and there will soon be seen for the first time in hundreds of years the Serbian flag floating on the high seas, and Serbian vessels lying at anchor in their own seaports.

Thus Europe is now benevolently providing for a Serbian future that is to be incomparably greater than any Serbian statesman had until very recently regarded as within the range of probable events.

Adriatic Outlets Why, then, have we been hearing so much about the desperate quarrel between the Italians and the Jugo-Slavs over the disposition of the town and port of Fiume? The very fact of the tenacity of both sides and their intense earnestness about the matter has indicated two things, both of them auspicious. First, it has indicated vigor, hopefulness and rightful aspiration on both sides. Second, and most important, it has indicated the knowledge on both sides that whatever solution was arrived at by the Conference at Paris would have to be accepted in good faith as final. Italians and Jugo-Slavs alike are making gains at the expense of the former Hapsburg dominions. Far more than the Jugo-Slavs had originally expected is already assured to them. The Italians, when they entered the war, had been engaged in secret negotiations with the Allies for some time, and they were given assurance of support in territorial claims which circumstances have compelled them to modify. Italy desired security in the Adriatic, and is entitled to have it. The League of Nations will support Italy, just as it will support France, in the maintenance of settlements now agreed upon. Both Italy and France will be doubly secure, however, if the settlements of 1919 are those which, looking to the future, will prove to have what one may term stable equilibrium. Italy should have naval control of the Adriatic, but all the peoples to the eastward, Hungarians as well as Slavs, should enjoy unembarrassed commercial access.

Compromises Necessary

Both Italy and France had territories to redeem, but the term "Italia Irredenta" should not be stretched to cover bits of sea-front not really needed by Italy and well-nigh indispensable to the great peoples beyond the Adriatic who will be pressing for outlets as their trade and commerce develop in the early future. Italy has more to gain from a generous policy, that will give her contented and agreeable neighbors, than from the acquisition of sea-frontage not essential to her but almost vital to the inland populations lying eastward. England and France have been somewhat embarrassed by the Italian claims because of the secret treaties signed when they were persuading Italy to come to their assistance. The United States has the utmost good-will towards Italy, and is well aware that in any case Jugo-Slavia will have obtained more than the Serbian-speaking people could only recently have hoped for. Nevertheless, it is the duty of the United States at the Peace Conference to hold the position of a disinterested umpire, promoting wise compromises and aiming at solutions which can be accepted as permanent and successfully maintained.

Business Problems Delayed

It is perhaps to be regretted that the Peace Conference should not have included a larger and more powerful representation of industrial and economic leaders, as contrasted with governmental officials and diplomats who are accustomed to view things chiefly from the political standpoint. Most of the fundamental

political questions were settled in principle when the armistice was signed. The military struggle being at an end, the overshadowing problems to be faced were in the sphere of business. For example, what Germany could pay and how to arrange it were questions that neither politicians nor military leaders could answer nearly as well as financiers, economists, manufacturers and labor leaders. The spirit of economic revolution is in no small part due to the lack of economic statesmanship at Paris. There was work for the military authorities in securing the disarmament of Germany and maintaining patrol and occupation. There was work for the diplomatists in fixing European boundaries; reconstructing the Turkish Empire; disposing of German colonies; creating the League of Nations. But there was an immense and pressing field of operation for the economists and financiers that required immediate attention. If these business matters could have been dealt with in a prompt and bold way by trained and capable men, the diplomatists could have taken their time in adjusting political questions with no danger by reason of delay.

Economic Conference Needed

Let us suppose there had been called together at once after the armistice was signed in November a body of the foremost European, British and American railway authorities, steamship men, steel manufacturers, bankers, merchants, heads of food and fuel administrations, general manufacturers (of agricultural implements for example), with trusted



THE PORT OF FIUME, ON THE ADRIATIC, CLAIMED BY THE ITALIANS UNDER TREATY AGREEMENTS WITH GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE, AND BY THE SOUTH SLAVS AS THEIR NATURAL OUTLET TO THE SEA

leaders of labor. It is impossible to believe that such a body would have seen any advantages to be gained from idleness and hunger in any country whatsoever, whether or not it had been formerly hostile. We may easily predict that a body of this kind would have proceeded by methods almost exactly the opposite of those which the Allied governments have taken. It might well be claimed that the Allies, by their course since November, have hurt Belgium worse than they have hurt Germany. Our imaginary conference of men familiar with large business affairs would not have lost a day in providing for the rehabilitation of Belgium, and would not have hesitated for a moment to see the need of giving food and employment to everybody in Germany if by that method Germany could each day be sending back to Belgium quantities of machinery to take the place of what had been stolen, and all sorts of supplies and materials by virtue of which the Belgians themselves could resume work.

*Belgium
in
Suspense*

Only a deplorably small part of the normal industrial life of Belgium has been resumed up to the present time. A very large part of the rehabilitation of Belgium ought by this time to have been accomplished through the support by the whole business world, Entente and neutral, of obligations which Germany in due time would have been compelled to redeem. In any case, Germany's restitutions would have to be fixed upon broad lines; and for these purposes general estimates are as serviceable as painfully verified bills of damage. Delays in these matters of indemnity and business adjustment have been almost as harmful to one side as to the other. A conference of big-brained business men might have decided to draw upon the resources of all countries, Allies and neutrals alike, for advance payments to France, Belgium, Poland and Serbia, to promote the quick revival of economic activity. Such a method, adopted promptly, of "under-writing" Germany's obligations, might have resulted in obtaining larger sums for the damaged countries than it is likely that the diplomats at Paris will have found it possible to assess.

*Where
Paris Has
Failed*

A great conference of business men called immediately after the armistice would have adopted comprehensive plans for the immediate distribution of food and industrial materials. Such men would have seen that every day of



MARSHAL FOCH WITH HIS CHIEF OF STAFF,
GENERAL WEYGAND

(Marshal Foch has emphasized chiefly the military aspects of future peace, and has secured satisfactory agreements)

dallying would make for chaos, and would diminish Germany's power to atone for her crimes and to work towards her own reinstatement as an honorable member of the European family. The great faults of the Peace Conference have not been the delay over the tedious problems of territorial adjustment, or the diversion of its efforts to the writing of the constitution for future world order. Its chief error has been that it failed to see the relatively greater importance for immediate action of business problems, which it was not well organized for solving. Its calling in of certain business experts in an informal way to give advice to committees has not sufficed. This method has obscured the business elements, and failed to give them responsibility for decisions that ought to have been made without delay.

*Nations
and the
Peace League*

The launching of a commonwealth, with sovereignty that is respected by all other nations, is one of the most majestic events that can be imagined. Nationalism is gaining rather than losing in value as a result of the Great War. Those who oppose the plan of a League of Nations on the grounds of patriotism do not think quite clearly into the practical situation. The League of Nations is to be built upon the wreck of empires which denied the rights of sovereignty to nations. The League is to support nationality as against its real enemies. Along with the birth of the League of Nations, France regains true boundaries and bids fair to enter upon her greatest period of truly national life. Italy completes the process of regaining and uniting the Italian districts, and stands stronger than ever as a member of the family of European States. We have alluded to the restoration of Poland to independence and sovereignty, and this event can hardly be overestimated in its importance. The dignity of citizenship in a country that has full standing is one of the things for which men are willing to make great sacrifices. The people of Poland are deserving not only of our sympathy but of our enthusiastic congratulations.

*American
and European
Freedom*

Americans of an earlier day did not hesitate to support the cause of Italian unity as fought for by Garibaldi and as proclaimed by idealists like Mazzini and statesmen like Cavour. Kosuth was an American hero in the period of his battling for Hungarian independence. The misfortunes of Poland, the struggles of the Greek patriots in Byron's day, the rise of Rumania, Servia and Bulgaria as the Turks were gradually driven back—all these movements were supported by the press and the people of America with unrestrained enthusiasm, and, for the most part, the American Government was at no great pains to maintain a correct attitude of neutrality. What we find now, in astonishing measure, is the fruition of those liberal movements for democracy and national independence that had been playing so great a part in the history of the past century.

*Bohemia
Claims Our
Friendship*

Thus, for example, the people of America are ardent in their good-will towards the new Czechoslovak Republic. The name Bohemia is more familiar to us, and if Czechoslovakia

should adopt the shorter and more easily pronounced name, such a decision would be generally welcomed. This Bohemian Republic remains under the provisional Presidency of Dr. Thomas G. Masaryk, reports of his resignation having been without foundation. Its Commissioner in the United States is Mr. Charles Pergler, and in the near future we shall, of course, see full diplomatic relations with Prague. Almost every country in Europe last month had boundary questions under agitation and it was not to be expected that the Paris Conference should have disposed of any of these problems without careful and somewhat protracted study.

*Four
Considerable
Countries*

Thus the newly constituted Poland, Czechoslovakia, Jugoslavia, and Rumania were all involved, along with other countries, in disputes as to certain claimed territories. They were all, however, assured of their main areas, and it was certain that Poland would have an area of almost 100,000 square miles and a population of perhaps twenty-five million. Rumania was destined to emerge with more than 100,000 square miles of territory and something like fifteen million people. Jugoslavia was certain of at least 85,000 square miles and about eleven million people. The largest entity in this combination is Serbia with 34,000 square miles and about 4,500,000 inhabitants. Czechoslovakia is much smaller in area, being credited with about 36,000 square miles, but Bohemia has a highly developed industrial population of about seven millions, and Moravia is similarly well populated in proportion to its much smaller territory. Altogether the Bohemian Republic will have more than 12,000,000 people.

*Ample
Sovereignty
Remains*

It ought not to be difficult for Americans to understand that the League of Nations, far from creating a kind of internationalism that lessens the value and dignity of the individual nations making up its membership, has been devised for exactly the opposite reasons. It was the Hapsburg, Hohenzollern and Romanoff Empires, resting upon military power and never satisfied with their acquisitions, that crushed and denied the rights of nationality. Under the old system, the Hungarian and German elements in the Hapsburg Dual Monarchy held advantages over other peoples of which they are now to be deprived. This touches the pride and the

emoluments of hereditary nobles and members of the ruling classes, but it does not take away from the ordinary German of Vienna, or Magyar of Budapest anything that was of value to him. Those two cities will for a time lose something of their relative importance as political, military, and business centers. But Prague, Cracow and other lesser centers had for many years past been growing somewhat at the expense of the two Austro-Hungarian capitals. German and Magyar will retain full national sovereignty, and their natural and proper patriotism will have due scope.

The League a Practical Affair for Europe

It will be highly important for the welfare of the new Europe from the North Sea to the Bosphorus that the movements of commerce be restricted as little as possible. Each one of the re-arranged European states will understand definitely that military adventure is to play no part in its future fortunes for good or for ill. For the more than twenty countries of full and equal sovereignty that must live side by side on the continent of Europe, the League of Nations is very far from being a mere phantasm, a dream of idealists. It is the most practical thing for them—apart from the initial fixing of their respective boundaries and standings—that could possibly emerge from the great Conference. Americans who have been disparaging the



WELDING THEM TOGETHER
From the *World* (New York)

proposal of a League of Nations cannot have understood what life has meant for the past half century to scores of millions of Europeans. They have been in constant dread of war, and have almost literally slept in military boots, ready to be summoned like police reserves or members of fire companies. The League of Nations means that collective Europe, supported by the rest of the world, ordains an end of these conflicts. The League is primarily a European affair, but Europe is so involved with the rest of the world that North and South America, Japan, China, India and Australia, must agree to it and support it.



THE CRITIC'S ARGUMENT
From the *Republic* (St. Louis, Mo.)

Ending Wars is the Supreme Object

The Russian revolution meant this one thing more than all else,—that the Russian people were tired of war and unwilling to endure any further sacrifices. The extent of popular war-weariness, in all of the belligerent countries at times during the great conflict, created situations about which military censorship would allow nothing to be printed. The League of Nations is coming, then, at the overwhelming demand, not of statesmen and diplomats, but of plain people who are determined to put an end to war. The struggle over boundaries is merely the endeavor to fix the map of national jurisdictions in such a way that there may be reasonable stability. There is no pretense in any intelligent quarter that it will be an easy thing to operate the machinery of such a League, or that the adoption of a plan of this kind can turn the



AS CERTAIN AS THE SUNRISE

From Newspaper Enterprise Association (Cleveland, O.)

bear-garden of Europe into a paradise of harmony and love. The main object of the United States at Paris is to keep alive the spirit of hope, generosity and enthusiasm, and to help in reconciling differences and in setting up a practical working order to replace the demolitions caused by the war.

Nations Will Grow and Change The dynamic forces that shape history are not to be paralyzed by any formal documents. There will be great changes in the future as in the past. There may even be great wars in the centuries to come. But through wise arrangements—in which paper constitutions and written agreements will have played an important part—we are expecting to prevent any great wars within the continental bounds of North America; and we are hoping with some confidence that there may be none in South America. We have tried in America to arrange things so that legal and orderly ways may be employed to adjust all differences before they become too serious for settlement. Within our formulas for keeping the peace and settling differences, there is ample room for development and national progress. It is not to be supposed that nations will stay permanently fixed, exactly as they are now placed. The growth of a tree will often displace masonry and cause strong walls to topple. The late Lord Salisbury once made some well-remembered remarks about living and dying nations. His hinted applications may have been erroneous; but there was some truth in the phrase. Germany had a great opportunity to lead all

Europe in the renunciation of militarism and in the adoption of new ideals of progress through science, education, and industry; but Germany accepted false views under bad leadership and her mistakes have set her far back. It will be well if the lesson of her discredited efforts to dominate by force is universally learned and applied.

*Future Changes
—An Unfinished
World*

For a good while to come there will in most cases be ample room for national development from within, without dangerous pressure upon boundary lines; but it would be a mistake to suppose that the League of Nations can be used to prevent the inevitable future "rise and fall" of peoples and States. We are not living in a finished world. It was the purpose of the Holy Alliance a hundred years ago to crystallize the world on the basis of the *status quo*, and to enforce peace. But the world will always refuse to be crystallized. If the United States west of the Rocky Mountains should ever propose to become a separate republic, it would not be the function of the League of Nations to use force to prevent, as treasonable, the realization of such a project. There will be great changes in the relative density and economic character of populations. Sooner or later, such changes may express themselves in shifts of sovereignty. At one time the eastern part of Canada had, within a few years, lost about a million of its people to the United States. In more recent years the western part of Canada has, in turn, been making a successful propaganda in the United States which has taken hundreds of thousands of our best young farmers and their families across the border. Such population shifts will go on in Europe, South America and Asia. In the long run there will be political changes due to now unforeseen racial growths and migrations. But it may reasonably be hoped that the League of Nations can so successfully put down militarism that future changes will come about through the working of democratic principles and without violence.

*The
League
Approved*

The League of Nations, as formulated at Paris, must be considered, then, chiefly in relation to the new map of Europe and to the complex problems that must inevitably arise from time to time. No international agreement can be too carefully scrutinized, and the discussions during recent weeks in the United

States have been creditable and valuable. It was fortunately shown that even those who seemed farthest apart were merely looking at the opposite sides of the same shield. The break-up of imperialism evidently requires a society of nations. As a pre-requisite to such a society, there must be a series of strong national sovereignties. Insofar as their distinctive policies are useful to these member nations and not harmful to others, the society of nations should be elastic enough in its form to be inclusive of all national policies.

*Monroe
Doctrine
Stands*

The Monroe Doctrine, for instance, has meant that the United States stood before the world as the especial champion of the essential rights of Western-Hemisphere Republics. In the very nature of the case, after the great and high-spirited part that America has played in the world situation, this country remains more than ever the champion of Western-Hemisphere freedom and progress. There is no nation in the world that is left to dispute these principles of freedom and progress in the Western Hemisphere, and certainly no nation would think it otherwise than commendable that America should still stand ready, no matter what became of the League of Nations, to see that the principles of the League were upheld on our side of the Atlantic. Undoubtedly this has been taken for granted from the start; but the explicit reservation is useful. If there are some individuals who think of the Monroe Doctrine as one of domination by the United States over Latin-America, the answer is that no



"THEY COULDN'T LOSE ME"
From the *World* (New York)

such view would be accepted by the great majority of the people in this country.

*American
and British
Spheres*

The Monroe Doctrine, however, expresses a policy that we have pursued for almost a century, and it is highly appropriate that it should be deliberately re-asserted at this time. Furthermore, besides the general principles of the Monroe Doctrine, we have assumed a special guardianship of small and undeveloped countries around the Caribbean, and we are quite certain in the future to resume exceptional relations with Mexico such as had existed previous to the recent revolution. Our spheres of influence, varying from the special agreements with Cuba and the Republic of Panama to the more distant and shadowy reaches of the Monroe Doctrine, constitute for us a general situation not wholly different from the obligations that England sustains under the phrase "British Empire." Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand and Newfoundland, with India in due time, are to have distinct membership in the League of Nations because they are to all intents and purposes separate countries. Yet they maintain some kind of intimate though indefinite political relationships with Great Britain. This grouping of free and self-governing peoples in the British Empire affords the world another great example of the advantages of association. Such advantages can be retained without the sacrifice of any essentials of independence or nationalism.



CUT AFTER THE SAME PATTERN!
From the *Tribune* (Sioux City, Ia.)

*The Two
Stable
Groupings*

The groupings that are signified by the phrase "Monroe Doctrine," and those that are signified by the phrase "British Empire," are in natural harmony with each other; and, taken together, they constitute the foremost guaranty of world order. They should be regarded, therefore, as in the large political sense interlocking rather than rival arrangements. The United States belongs morally to the grouping of English-speaking democracies, while, on the other hand, both Canada and Great Britain are almost as much interested as is the United States in the maintenance of the Monroe Doctrine. An arbitrary and selfish application of the Monroe Doctrine in some particular instance by our Government might arouse deserved opposition; while arrogance in the exercise of sea-power by Great Britain might provoke very pertinent criticism. But as matters stand, the American Monroe Doctrine and the British exercise of sea-power conspicuously represent the practical situations in the world which make for security and freedom, and they denote the solid concerns that are "underwriting" the League of Nations in its formative period.

*Politics
versus
Economics*

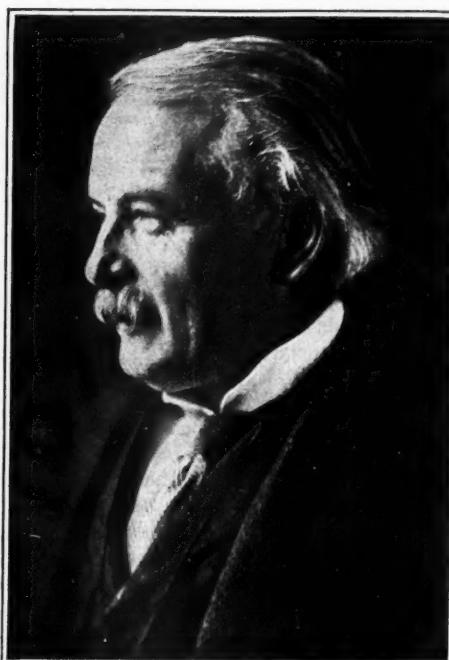
If the work of the Allies at Paris is to be criticized, it should not be so much for their dealing with what are in the true sense political issues, as for their giving too much of a political character to matters strictly economic. Thus Mr. Lloyd George had promised large things in his election campaign of December. He and his supporters assured the English taxpayers not only that there should be payment for actual losses of shipping and civilian damages, but that the British war debt would be largely wiped out through payments from Germany. As we have already said, it would

have been better if all these business adjustments could have been worked out by a separate organization of financiers and business men rather than by political leaders like Clemenceau, Lloyd George, and Wilson, whose financial advisers have not had sufficient independence or prestige. In these matters business leadership would have been more valuable than that of military men like General Foch, or masters of statecraft like Mr. Lloyd George. The Prime Minister had assumed more responsibility than was safe.

*Business
the Needed
Remedy*

If an authoritative conference of business men had been acting boldly in November and December, we should have seen by this time a much more hopeful condition of things throughout Europe. There are many who believe that a different business policy pursued towards Russia might have averted the Bolshevik seizure of power. Certainly a policy of putting Germany at work before the Bolsheviks had taken advantage of hunger and unemployment to promote revolutions would have been better for Belgium and France than Teutonic chaos. In these mat-

ters the business world should have dictated to the political world. It is true that there is now a partial lifting of the blockade, and, after much delay, German ships are beginning to bring home American troops, while American supplies are beginning to relieve German necessities. It has never been a question of indulging Germany or of condoning her faults, but solely a matter of dealing with an economic situation of larger extent, in which Germany is involved as a necessary factor. European prosperity is not an affair of separate countries, but is now especially a problem to be viewed in its entirety. Generally speaking, it is to the advantage of every creditor to have his debtors

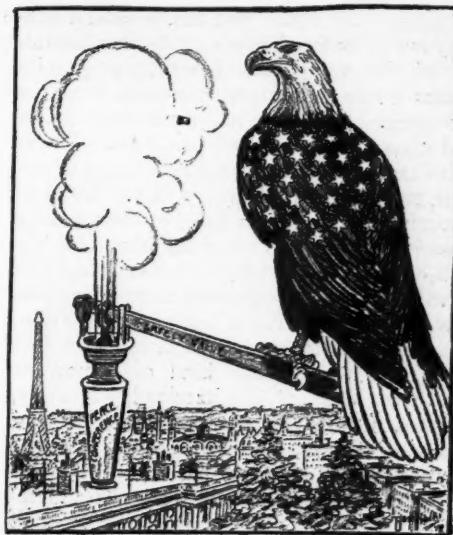


RT. HON. DAVID LLOYD GEORGE
(British Prime Minister)

solvent and prosperous. Europe needs the tonic of prosperous industry.

*Shifting
Moods at
Paris*

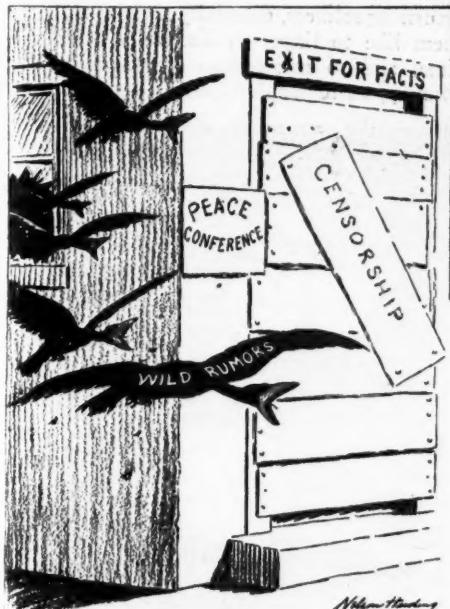
During the latter part of March and the first half of April, the dispatches from Paris reflected violent discussion and fluctuating moods, and brought much more of rumor than of authentic news. An immense amount of work had been done by committees, and final results were being formulated by Messrs. Wilson, Clemenceau, Lloyd George and Orlando, who were referred to in the dispatches as the "Big Four." Evidently the Conference was moving toward final conclusions, and each special interest was clamoring loudly, using its press facilities and pulling wires by day and by night. The correspondents at Paris were so close to all this clamor that few of them could see the situation as a whole. Reports of disagreement were enormously exaggerated. Thousands of columns in the newspapers were devoted to matters which, while seeming to be of immense consequence, let us say on Tuesday or Wednesday, were not even worth two lines of allusion, in a résumé of the week, on the following Sunday. Even Mr. Simonds, whose cabled article of April 14 appears in this issue of the REVIEW, reflects the local Paris pessimism.



From the Central Press Association (Cleveland, Ohio)

*Pounding
on the
Umpire*

Since America's position, morally and physically, is exceptionally strong, and since America is more detached and disinterested in relation to European problems than any other country, it was natural that President Wilson should have more the status of an umpire than any other Conference member. The French delegation felt itself obliged as trustees for the welfare of the French people, to press constantly the claims of France. The British delegation, while broad-minded, was frankly engaged in urging British financial claims and looking out for the varied interests of the British Empire. The United States alone seemed to be working at Paris with the principal aim of securing the greatest good of the greatest number. It was to be expected, therefore, that there would be much "swearing at the umpire" from the bleachers, and that the clamorous press would deal with the affair from day to day as if it was reporting rounds in a prize fight, or innings in the decisive game of a "world's series." The megaphones on the side lines have been so noisy that it is not strange that serious onlookers have missed the real plays and attached importance to what have been trifling controversies or mere nerve attacks.



WHEN TRUTH IS KEPT WITHIN DOORS LIES COME OUT AT THE WINDOW

From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.)

*Bolshevism
Following
Autocracy*

The war itself was a heavy enough price to have been paid by the peoples of Europe for the maintenance of autocracies in Russia, Germany, and Austria that should have been

abolished long ago. But now a second penalty has to be faced in the chaos that has followed the destruction of autocratic governments where the proper substitutes were not provided. Autocracy had maintained medieval class distinctions and privileges. Under autocracy, furthermore, the new forms of undue privilege and advantage in the hands of the masters of modern industry had become associated with the surviving abuses of the old order. It is under such conditions that revolution takes the extreme form of proletariat fanaticism. There is no imminent danger of Bolshevik revolution in countries that have had a reasonable kind of democratic growth, such as Switzerland, Norway, France, Great Britain, the United States, Canada. The setting up of a so-called Soviet government in Hungary has been due to the presence of masses of idle workmen and returned soldiers. This Hungarian revolution seems to be comparatively free from the kind of bloodshed and crime that have marked the Russian Soviet régime. More puzzling have been the accounts of bloodless revolution in Bavaria with an imitation Bolshevik government set up by third-rate artists, musicians, and actors. It is difficult to believe that moderate and intelligent counsels will not in due time bring to Hungary, Bavaria, and indeed to all parts of Germany, some orderly forms of republican government with security for persons and property.

*Labor's
Salutary
Methods*

It is plain enough that it is not going to need wild-eyed anarchy to secure for working men far better conditions in the world than they enjoyed a few years ago. Issues that were pending in England in March were to a great extent adjusted in April as a result of conferences and mutual concessions. The concessions, however, have been principally on the part of the employers; and the gains are expressed in terms that will sooner or later improve the living conditions of almost the entire British population. Workingmen in England are, upon the whole, contented to use the instruments of social progress that British institutions afford them. There are to be shorter hours; mining conditions are to be transformed; the wage level is to be kept high; educational opportunities are to be as good as they can be made; and there are to be wide popular reforms in housing, land control, and taxation. The British labor movement has not been free from mistakes, but it commands respect.

*Labor
Questions
at Paris*

There has been at Paris an international labor conference under the chairmanship of Mr. Samuel Gompers, head of the American Federation of Labor, who returned to the United States last month. This labor body formulated a report which the Peace Conference promptly approved. Specific recommendations include the eight-hour day, equal pay for women, prohibition of child labor, proper wages, and what may be called the protection of human dignity. A few years ago these principles seemed difficult of realization, but they are now in the realm of the practical. Labor reforms that recognize the value of private initiative, that respect the institution of property, and that understand the function and the rights of capital in productive industry, have much more to give the body of workers than can ever be derived from the economic programs of the Bolsheviks. The outlook in the United States is distinctly favorable for wage-earners. Hundreds and thousands of Italians and other foreigners are drawing their money from the savings banks and returning to Europe as fast as they can obtain ocean passage. Unemployment, reported in the newspapers at certain centers, is due merely to transitions. Great manufacturing cities like Detroit and Cleveland are busy and facing labor shortages. It will take a little time to distribute returning soldiers, especially since so many of them like to linger in Eastern cities for a time, and so many more of them in this country, as in England and France, do not



WHY PEACE MUST HASTEN
From the *World* (New York)

feel quite ready to settle down to steady work. Professor Kirchwey—whose talent for public service, like that of the late Professor Dutton, is always available in emergencies—is now directing the Government Employing Service in New York, and has written for us this month (see page 521) an encouraging analysis of our American labor situation.

Dealing with Human Assets In this number, also (see page 504) is a remarkably interesting statement by Professor Raymond

Dodge of the kind of work the psychologists did for the army in the war period. The principal asset of any country is its people, and it is worth while to encourage what Professor Dodge calls "human engineering." There are many men trying to do brain work unsuccessfully who would make excellent mechanics. On the other hand, there are many men in the ranks of the wage-earners who should be encouraged to become teachers or physicians. One of the principles to be demanded by the International Labor Conference is that of reasonable opportunity for each young worker to be advised and trained for success in life. Short hours of labor mean great opportunities for the ambitious and industrious.

National Economy Required We shall have due occasion in the approaching months to discuss affairs at Washington, and are giving comparatively little attention to that governing center in this number of the REVIEW. It is probable that within a few weeks the new Congress will be called into session. Financial problems of great magnitude must be faced with firmness and intelligence if the Republicans are to earn the confidence of the country. Too much of the current national wealth is being garnered into the Treasury for unproductive expenditure. Wars are extravagant affairs, and economy is not a prime consideration in times of life and death; but the war is ended and the question of economy becomes vital. It is the tendency of government to find the most expensive possible ways of doing everything that it undertakes. The time has come for the adoption of a National Budget system and for intelligent public finance. The Government of the United States could be run upon an income of three billions a year; one-third for the payment of interest on our war debt, and two-thirds for Army, Navy, pensions and the various public services.



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REAR ADM. WILLIAM S. SIMS AND THE ACTING SECRETARY OF THE NAVY, HON FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

(Admiral Sims returned to the United States last month, after two years' service in supreme command of American naval units in the war zone)

Defense Bills in Future

The future of the army is one of the subjects that must be considered in the light of finance. The largest item in our war bill was the cost of creating an army of more than four million men. This involved primarily an immense amount of training, and secondarily a great supply of equipment. A wise use of these investments already made should provide for adequate national defense for many years to come with relatively small outlay of new money. With millions of exceptionally well-trained young men, and scores of thousands of officers, it should be possible to arrange a reserve system at moderate expense and maintain it on a basis of efficiency. The very obviousness and simplicity of the thing are likely to endanger it. There will be military men insisting upon an enormously expensive standing army, with the result of allowing the country to lose the benefit of the training it has already given to millions.



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LT. COLONEL THEODORE ROOSEVELT WITH HIS FAMILY

The War Veterans and "T. R., Jr." Active steps have been taken for the organization of the discharged soldiers of all ranks, in one national patriotic body. Men whose names and characters inspire confidence will take the initiative. Foremost among those concerned with this project at the outset is Lieutenant-Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, Jr., whose recent return from France with a record of valiant service at the front has brought him into exceptional prominence. Sometimes public favor is fickle, yet it is fairly reliable in the long run. The late President Roosevelt's place in the affection and esteem of the nation is as fully assured as that of any American who had preceded him. The thought of a trustworthy and competent son succeeding a respected father is one that makes universal appeal. The second Theodore Roosevelt, eldest of the four brothers who served in the war, has never sought favor

by reason of his father's eminence. He is well aware that the peculiar welcome he has been receiving everywhere is in large part intended to remind him of the country's regard for his father. But the younger man has been observed, in these last weeks, with keen eyes for his own qualities, by hundreds of men of his father's generation, and they have found him worthy to stand in his own right. He is in his thirty-second year, and before going into the army he had served an apprenticeship of a number of years in business after leaving college. He had meanwhile been a close student of political affairs from his father's standpoint, with his brothers.

Our Defense Problems The organization of world-war veterans should not only be of mutual aid to millions of young men, but it should help to work out, on satisfactory lines, the prob-



© Walter Scott Shinn
MAJOR KERMIT ROOSEVELT AND HIS FAMILY

lement of national defense through the general training of young citizens for patriotic duty. While militarism of the type that made Germany a menace can no longer be tolerated, there will be good reason for the universal training of young men to serve the community in military as well as other ways. The Swiss system is not a menace, and it meets the needs of defense. While Congress will be studying these matters, and while the army general staff and the war department will have plans, it is probable that in the near future the policies recommended by the society of veterans will prevail. It is important, therefore, that the society proceed in due time to develop its organization and lay out its work.

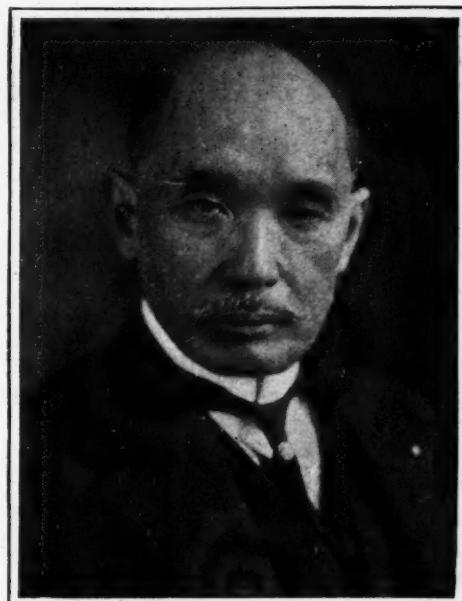
*Naval
and Aerial
Defense*

The two services of defense most important for the future are Aviation and the Navy. Mr. Collins, in this number, gives us a timely account of the remarkable current advances in the science and art of flying; while Admiral Peary presents an emphatic plea for a National Department of Aviation at Washington. The maintenance of a great Navy is expensive, but naval neglect has been calamitous at several critical periods in our history. Naval preparedness stands to-day, as heretofore, the cheapest and best kind of national insurance policy. The return of Admiral Sims and the arrival of Admiral Mayo's great fleet last month called attention again to the splendid service our Navy had rendered in 1917 and 1918.

*Across
the
Pacific*

President Wilson and Secretary Baker last month gave full encouragement to the Filipino

delegation now in the United States seeking the independence of the Islands. The President's cable and the Secretary's speech were well-timed to impress the Peace Conference with the fact that anti-imperialism is something America is prepared to practise as well as to preach. Corea's demands, on the other hand, for freedom from Japan go directly counter to Japanese policies and have no footing at Paris. Japan grows more democratic, however, and the suffrage is about to be extended to large numbers of people hitherto disfranchised. Baron Makino and the Japanese delegates at Paris have won especial admiration for the wise and conciliatory courses they have pursued, in general accord with the American delegates. Anti-Japanese propaganda here has failed again.



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BARON MAKINO, ONE OF JAPAN'S ABLE STATESMEN
AT THE PEACE CONFERENCE

On April 13, the terms of the "Victory" loan were announced by Secretary of the Treasury Glass. The amount asked for was smaller than had been anticipated,—\$4,500,000,000. The new loan takes the form of four year notes which may at the option of the Government be paid in three years, bearing 4 3/4 per cent. interest, free of State, local and federal normal taxes and convertible by the owner into notes bearing 3 3/4 per cent interest, free of all taxes except those on estates and inheritances. The 3 3/4 per cent. tax-free notes are in turn convertible into the 4 3/4 per cents. Oversubscription will not be allowed and Secretary Glass announces that this will be the last Liberty loan. There is no reason for using the word "notes" rather than "bonds" for the new issue except its early maturity. The campaign to sell them was timed to begin on April 21. One of the most important considerations impelling the Secretary to wait until the last moment before deciding on the terms was that all the time and study possible was none too much to make sure that the specifications of the new loan should be such as to strengthen the market position of the Liberty bonds already issued, and such as to interfere as little as possible with the prices of other standard securities that tend to suf-



THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY, HON. CARTER GLASS, INSPECTING A VICTORY LOAN POSTER

fer in competition with the Government loans as the income yield of the latter gets higher and higher, some of the Liberty Loan issues here last month selling nearly seven points below par. It has even been suggested that these war issues should be made receivable at par in payment of certain classes of taxes.

*Secretary
Glass
Is Confident*

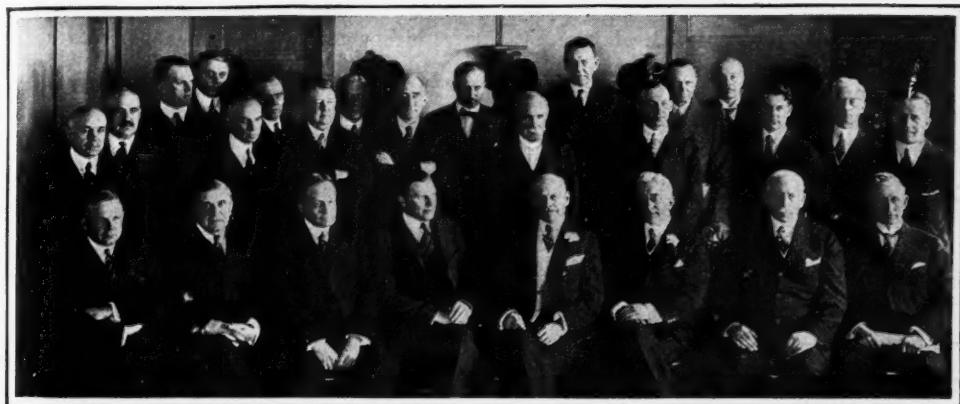
Much pessimism has been in evidence as to the ability of the Government to float an enormous new loan when the intense patriotic stimulus of war times has ceased, in a year when excess profits taxes and income taxes are already taking about eight billion dollars from the American people, and at a time when the outstanding Liberty bonds are selling at such a heavy discount. It is also true that business profits are low as compared to their height in the period of active war purchases. Secretary Glass has had, however, no doubts as to the success of the issue. In public statements he has pointed out that the depreciation in the outstanding issues of our Government bonds has been the result of artificial causes, and that no one could be found who did not believe the Liberty bonds would sell above par before they matured. The Secretary pointed out that our present national debt was less than twenty-five billion dollars and that, after all the war bills were paid, it should not exceed thirty billion dollars, against which we shall hold some ten billion dollars of obligations of foreign countries; and that this net debt is "the barest fraction of our national resources."

*Our Debt
Compared
to Europe's*

With a net public debt of twenty billion dollars, there is an average indebtedness of about \$200 for each man, woman, and child in the country; but in the case of France the average debt per capita is \$1000. It is true, too, that we have not suffered by the loss of foreign lendings as France has, nor by the devastation of our best industrial districts. Also, during the war we have changed from a debtor nation to a creditor nation, while England has changed in the reverse direction. Our financial burdens are, indeed, the smallest among the Allies, with the exception of Japan's. In proportion to her wealth, Japan's debt is about 4 per cent.; ours about 8 per cent. Debts of other Allied countries run to nearly half their national wealth. The cost of our Civil War looks small as compared with the cost of our participation in the World War; in the former we spent about four billions, considerably less than one-seventh of our expense in this war, although it lasted only one-third as long. But we are very much more than seven times as strong in resources as we were in 1865. It is the duty of the country to take the "Victory" bonds, but it is to the self-interest of the country, also.

*Steel
and Coal
Prices*

It is unfortunate that there should not have been a complete understanding among the departments at Washington in the matter of Secretary Redfield's attempt to stabilize the prices of basic commodities, such as iron and steel, coal and lumber. The Industrial Board created by the Department of Commerce to confer with our captains of industry in an attempt to arrive at fair prices for the basic commodities (which meant, of course, lower prices), did so confer and actually succeeded in arriving at agreements by which, for instance, \$47 was to be the new reconstruction price for steel rails as against \$57 quoted in the market. It was believed that industrial operations would take a new lease of life when purchasers knew that there was for a time, at least, a pause in the downward tendency of prices and some temporary equilibrium. The project seemed to be going well until it was halted by the refusal of the Director-General of the railroads to accept the terms for steel rails that had been agreed on and recommended as "fair" by the Department of Commerce's Industrial Board. Mr. Hines' refusal to allow the railroads to pay the agreed prices was based on his opin-



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REPRESENTATIVES OF THE STEEL INDUSTRY, AND GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS, WHO HAVE SOUGHT TO FIX A FAIR PRICE FOR STEEL PRODUCTS

(From left to right, seated, are: T. C. Powell, director of capital expenditures, U. S. Railroad Administration; Charles M. Schwab, chairman, president board of directors, Bethlehem Steel Corporation; Harry S. Garfield, U. S. Fuel Administration; George N. Peek, chairman of the Government's new Industrial Board; Judge Elbert H. Gary, chairman board of directors, U. S. Steel Corporation; Wm. M. Ritter, president W. M. Ritter Lumber Co., West Virginia; James A. Farrell, president U. S. Steel Corporation, and J. A. Topping, chairman of board of directors of the Republic Iron and Steel Co. Standing: J. V. W. Reynders, president American Tube & Stamping Co.; James B. Benner, U. S. Steel Corporation; John A. Savage, representing iron ore producers; Mr. Trigg; Mr. McKinney; John C. Neale, Midvale Steel and Ordnance Co.; B. F. Jones, president Jones & Laughlin Steel Co.; H. S. Snyder, vice-president U. S. Steel Corporation; Thomas K. Glenn, president Atlantic Steel Co.; John P. Bush, president Buckeye Steel Casting Co.; Anthony J. Caminetti, Commissioner General of Immigration; George R. James, president Wm. R. Moore Dry Goods Co.; Edward T. Quigley, Department of Commerce; James A. Burden, president Burden Iron Co.; Leonard Peckitt, president Empire Steel & Iron Co.; F. H. Gorden, Inkons Steel Co.; W. A. Follansbee, Follansbee Bros. & Co., and Lewis B. Reed, secretary Industrial Board)

ion that they were too high. They were, indeed, some 80 per cent. higher than the ten-year pre-war average, and in some other lines of industry, notably copper mining, prices had already been scaled down to figures close to, or even below, the pre-war average. In spite of the example of copper, however, it would be difficult to see how greater reduction in iron, steel and coal prices could be made now without rendering it impossible for the higher-cost producers to operate. For any further radical reductions to meet Mr. Hines' ideas of proper prices, it appears to be necessary that the wage structure should be revised throughout industry in general."

*The Plight
of the
Railroads*

That such a revision of wages downward is not feasible at the present time is best shown by the Director-General of Railroads himself, who is, even now, further increasing wages. On April 11, it was announced that he had granted increases of pay to train crews, amounting to \$65,000,000 a year, and dating from January 1, 1919. The beneficiaries are chiefly the members of the so-called Big Four Brotherhoods, which had received an increase of about \$70,000,000 in wages under the Adamson Act and a further raise of \$160,000,000 last summer after the recom-

mendations of the Lane board. This most recent addition to the payroll of the railroads comes at a time when their actual earnings are lower in proportion to the investment than ever before. At first glance it is difficult to understand how the current earning statement of the roads under Government operation can be so bad as they are. With freight rates increased by 25 per cent., and passenger rates by 50 per cent.; with less adequate service to the public; in the best mid-winter month, so far as weather conditions are concerned, ever known; with the congestion and rush of war business no longer affecting their efficiency in any essential degree—the railroads under Government control earned, last January, \$36,000,000 less than the month's proportion of the "standard return" which the Government has promised them. Seventy-three large lines failed even to earn their operating expenses in that month, although the gross receipts were enormous. Fifteen more failed to earn both expenses and taxes. Although Director-General Hines is striving manfully to reduce expenses, and, particularly, to cut down costly overtime work by taking on additional railway workers, it is predicted that there will be a deficit for this year of not less than \$500,000,000. The first two months of 1919 alone produced a deficit of \$122,000,000.

Promise and Performance When Director-General McAdoo took over the railways, he informed the Senate Committee that the roads were already earning \$100,000,000 per year more than the "standard return" promised them during Government control, and with economies to be effected through unified operation he confidently hoped for a profit to the Government. The critics of private railway management sharpened their pencils and figured the profit the Government was going to make at various sums ranging from \$400,000,000 to \$1,000,000,000 yearly. As a matter of fact, in spite of rate increases, which have added something like \$1,100,000,000 to the income of the roads, they are showing these huge deficits. How can it be? The answer seems to include three factors, two of which are more or less determinable: huge increases in wages, huge increases in the cost of steel, coal, and other supplies, and a lessened efficiency in labor under Government operation. Since the Government took over the roads, \$910,000,000 a year has been added to the payrolls, which, with the increases given by the private operators in 1916 and 1917, makes a total wage increase of \$1,260,000,000. The Interstate Commerce Commission allowed the railroad companies to add \$100,000,000 a year to their rates, and the Government added \$1,000,000,000 a year in 1918. Thus, before the factor of increased cost of supplies is reached at all, there is a net deficiency of \$160,000,000 a year, the amount by which wage increases exceed the rate increases. The railroads buy about 30 per cent. of all the bituminous coal mined, and their total coal bill is \$470,000,000, which has increased over pre-war years by no less than \$250,000,000. They are paying \$250,000,000 more for steel products, so that already we have a deficiency in income, as compared with pre-war years, of nearly \$700,000,000. Greater costs of materials and supplies other than steel and coal will greatly swell this, so that it is not difficult to understand the present inability of the roads to earn their keep.

England's Similar Experience In April our Government was forced to appeal to private banking interests to get the money absolutely needed currently to finance the railroads, the last Congress having adjourned without appropriating the sum of \$750,000,000 specified by Director-General Hines as the amount absolutely required for the

months just ahead. The most pressing single piece of domestic business that will confront Congress in the extra session that will probably be called in May is a resolute and thoroughgoing handling of the desperate railroad situation. England is having an experience similar to ours, with the same causes operating. Sir Eric Geddes recently announced that England's railways, costing the Government \$100,000,000 a year, "were earning practically no income." That the cost to the English people looks so small beside our railway deficit is, of course, due to the fact that their roads aggregate less than one-tenth the mileage we have. In England, too, the fundamental cause of the bankruptcy is the necessity for increasing wages faster than rates.

Our Stupendous Crop of Wheat One bright place in the lurid affairs of the world is our wheat belt. Nature has done us and the greater part of the civilized world a striking kindness in a year of need. With Russia's great granary producing, amid Bolshevik chaos, only a quarter or a third of its usual supply of wheat—certainly not enough for Russia's own needs; with Hungary and Rumania so far behind normal production that those two countries will do well to be able to take care of themselves, Europe will look this year chiefly to America to be fed. The American winter wheat crop is very much the largest that has ever been indicated. Plentiful moisture, widely distributed over the wheat-growing areas, has brought the fields to a phenomenal "condition," which the Agricultural Department estimated, on April 8th, to be 99.8 per cent.; some great wheat-growing States like Kansas were credited with a condition of 101 and Ohio with no less than 104 per cent. But not only is this average condition of 99.8 per cent. much the highest percentage on record—the ten-year average is 88.6—the acreage is also the largest ever planted in this country. Furthermore, the unusually prosperous condition of the wheat fields is very widely distributed. Among the States having one million acres or more of wheatfields even the lowest in percentage, North Carolina, shows 96. The Department figures on a total winter wheat crop of 837,000,000 bushels,—about double the average annual production in the five years before the war, and 50 per cent. more than the average crop of the war years. The value of this winter crop alone, at the guaranteed price of \$2.26 a bushel, amounts to nearly \$1,900,000,000.



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ARMY MANEUVERS IN GERMANY—BY AN AMERICAN DIVISION

(This is the Second Division, under command of Major-General Lejeune, just before review by General Pershing near Vallendar, Germany)

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From March 15 to April 15, 1919)

THE PEACE CONFERENCE AT PARIS

March 18.—Committees decide that navigation of the Rhine shall be controlled by an international commission, and that Heligoland fortifications shall be dismantled.

March 20.—Neutral nations are permitted to express their views and propose amendments to the plan of a League of Nations.

March 21.—The Italian delegation—it is reported—threatens to withdraw from the conference unless the port of Fiume (claimed also by the Jugoslavs) is awarded to Italy.

The League of Nations Commission meets for the first time since February 14, and begins consideration of amendments proposed to the original draft.

March 24.—Consideration of the chief problems in controversy passes from a Council of Ten to a Council of Four—President Wilson and Premiers Lloyd George, Clemenceau, and Orlando.

March 26.—It is decided, upon demand of the Italians, to prolong the conference and to fix terms with all four enemy powers, rather than to settle with Germany alone.

April 2.—The head of the Japanese delegation, Baron Makino, declares in a newspaper statement that "no Asiatic nation could be happy in a League of Nations in which sharp racial discrimination is maintained."

April 6.—A report that President Wilson has summoned his steamer, to be ready to take him home promptly, is interpreted as indicating a deadlock among the Council of Four.

Premier Lloyd George declares that "there is no divergence among the negotiators," but merely "technical difficulties, which can only be settled after close study."

April 8.—Premier Lloyd George receives a telegram signed by more than a majority of the House of Commons, reminding him of his election pledges to exact the utmost indemnity from Germany.

It is reported that the Commission on Responsibility for the War has decided to exclude the death penalty from punishment to be meted out to the former German Emperor.

April 10.—The League of Nations Commission, after a plea by President Wilson, adopts a section stipulating that the covenant shall not affect existing understandings, like the Monroe Doctrine, for securing a maintenance of peace.

The members of the French Senate sign a resolution expressing the hope that "full restitution will be exacted from the enemy, together with reparation for damage . . . and that the full cost of the war will be imposed upon those responsible."

April 11.—The Peace Conference assembles in its fourth plenary session; the Commission on International Labor Legislation presents its report.

The League of Nations Commission completes consideration of the covenant of the League of Nations; it is reported that Geneva, Switzerland, has been chosen as the capital of the League.

April 12.—It is reported that France's claim to the German coal region in the Saar Valley, as reparation for French coal regions destroyed, has been settled by granting to France perpetual control of the mines.

April 14.—On behalf of the Council of Four, President Wilson announces that complete solution is so near that German plenipotentiaries will be invited to meet with representatives of the

associated belligerent nations at Versailles on April 25.

It is reported that the amount of indemnity to be assessed against Germany for violations of international law has been fixed at one hundred billion gold marks (\$23,800,000,000); 26,000,000,000 marks are to be paid within two years; 40,000,000,000 during the subsequent thirty years, and an additional 40,000,000,000 at a time to be fixed by a joint commission.

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

March 18.—The New Jersey Legislature adopts a resolution rejecting the prohibition amendment to the federal Constitution.

March 19.—A debate upon the proposed League of Nations, in Boston, by President Lowell, of Harvard University (a leading advocate), and Senator Lodge (a leading opponent), results in the establishment of common ground; Mr. Lowell would agree to amendments of the present draft, and Mr. Lodge would agree after amendment.

Suit is brought in the federal courts to prevent the Government from interfering with the manufacture of beer containing not more than 2.75 per cent. alcohol.



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PREMIER EBERT OF GERMANY (ON THE RIGHT) WITH
CHANCELLOR SCHEIDEMANN
(A recent photograph, on occasion of funeral ceremonies
for victims of rioting)

March 22.—The Treasury Department states that more than \$1,000,000,000, was received on March 15, when the first fourth of income and excess profits taxes became due.

March 24.—Ex-President Taft suggests amendments to the draft of the League of Nations, designed to recognize the principle of the Monroe Doctrine.

A bill extending the franchise to women in Presidential elections is signed by the Governor of Minnesota.

March 26.—Charles E. Hughes, former Justice of the Supreme Court, proposes a series of amendments to the draft of the League of Nations.

March 29.—The Postmaster General announces a 20 per cent. increase in domestic telegraph rates.

March 30.—Elihu Root, former Secretary of State, proposes a series of amendments to the draft of the League of Nations.

April 1.—In the Chicago election, Mayor William H. Thompson (Rep.) defeats Robert M. Sweitzer (Dem.). . . . In the Baltimore primary, Mayor James H. Preston (Dem.) is defeated for renomination by George W. Williams; William F. Broening is the Republican candidate.

April 2.—The Director General of Railroads refuses to accept reductions in steel prices recently fixed by the Industrial Board created by the Secretary of Commerce.

April 4.—A delegation of Filipinos presents to Secretary of War Baker a memorial from the Philippine Legislature asking for complete independence; a message from President Wilson is read to them, expressing hope that their mission will result in the ends desired.

April 7.—The Secretary of War, Mr. Baker, sails for Europe to arrange payments between England, France, and the United States for war material.

April 10.—The Director-General of Railroads grants to train crews an increase in wages estimated at \$65,000,000—making the third increase by Government direction within three years.

It is reported from Archangel, Russia, that American troops recently inquired of their commander why they should proceed against the Bolsheviks when fighting with Germany is over and the United States is not at war with Russia.

April 12.—The Chief of Staff of the Army announces that 686,000 troops have sailed from overseas in the five months since the armistice, and that a total of 1,700,000 officers and men have been discharged from the army; 1,980,000 remain in the service.

April 13.—The Secretary of the Treasury announces the amount and terms of the new Victory Liberty Loan to be offered to the public; \$4,500,000,000 in notes will be offered, to run for three or four years, with interest at $4\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. partly tax free, convertible into $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. notes free from all taxation.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

March 15.—The Argentine Government seeks to end a strike which has tied up the port of Buenos Aires, by nationalizing the service of loading and unloading vessels.

March 16.—A new German-Austrian government is reported established at Vienna, with Dr. Renner as Chancellor.



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THE SPECIAL FILIPINO COMMISSION TO THE UNITED STATES, PRESENTING AN APPEAL FOR INDEPENDENCE
 (In the center of the group, between Secretary Baker and General March, is Manuel Quezon, for many years Resident Commissioner at Washington and now President of the Philippine Senate)

March 18.—The new Socialist Premier of Bavaria, Herr Hoffmann, outlines his program; the Diet abolishes the nobility and prohibits rights of inheritance.

Disorders in Egypt, in furtherance of the Nationalists' demand for autonomy, are admitted by Government leaders in the British House of Commons.

March 22.—Upon the resignation of the Karolyi cabinet—coincident with the occupation of Hungary by Allied armies—a "dictatorship of the proletariat" is proclaimed by Workers', Peasants' and Soldiers' Councils, with a program of socialization of estates and industries.

March 24.—Martial law is proclaimed throughout Spain as a result of a general strike in Barcelona.

March 25.—A new Socialist cabinet is formed in Prussia, with Paul Hirsch as Premier.

The British Secretary for War, Mr. Churchill,—defending in the House of Commons the Government's proposal to keep an army of 850,000 men,—states that the whole of Egypt is virtually in a state of insurrection.

March 31.—The British House of Commons passes the Government's Military bill, 282 to 64, providing for an army of 850,000 men, in the face of charges of extravagance and abandonment of election pledges to abolish conscription.

French demobilization, it is estimated, has released 2,000,000 men to civilian life, with a somewhat larger number remaining under arms.

April 3.—It is reported that Gen. Aurelio Blanquet has landed in Vera Cruz, Mexico, for the purpose of leading a movement for the overthrow of the Carranza government.

The French Chamber rejects two woman-suffrage amendments to an Electoral Reform bill.

The British House of Commons passes the second reading of the Women's Emancipation bill, a Labor Party measure designed to "give effect to the political and legal equality of men and women."

April 7.—A Soviet Republic is proclaimed in Munich, Bavaria, the "workers" taking over entire public authority; Premier Hoffmann transfers his government to Nürnberg.

April 10.—Rioting in Cairo and Alexandria, Egypt, directed principally against Armenians, results in the death of fifty-eight persons.

April 11.—The Mexican War Department announces that Gen. Emiliano Zapata—the bandit who for years dominated the state of Morelos, south of the capital—has been found in hiding and killed by Government troops.

April 12.—The War Minister in Savony is murdered by wounded soldiers who have been dissatisfied with peace-time pay.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

March 14.—A Bolshevik attack against Allied and American forces near the junction of the Dvina and Vaga rivers, in northern Russia, is not only repulsed but severely defeated.

March 31.—The American State Department and the Japanese Embassy at Washington initiate separate inquiries into rumors of land concessions granted by the Mexican Government to Japanese corporations.

April 4.—In an engagement between Bolshevik and Allied troops, in the Archangel district of Russia, there are 800 Bolshevik casualties without loss to the Allies.

April 5.—After long and heated discussion by Marshall Foch and German Government leaders, the right is maintained to transport Polish troops home from France via Danzig (the German Baltic port claimed also by the new state of Poland)—but it is decided to send them some other way.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

March 18.—The population of Rheims, France (for more than four years within range of German guns), is officially announced to have fallen from 115,000 to 8453.

March 20.—Marriage and divorce statistics are made public at Washington for the year 1916, showing 10.5 marriages per thousand of population, and 1.1 divorces.

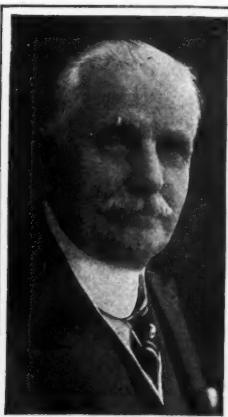
It becomes known that wireless telephone messages were sent from New Brunswick, N. J., to the President's ship *George Washington* throughout the entire voyage across the Atlantic (see page 500).

March 21.—Casualties in the United States air service at the front are made public: 171 aviators lost their lives in combat (besides 73 missing), and 42 were killed in accidents; 135 were made prisoners, and 117 were wounded.

March 23.—It is stated at Washington that in the United States forces there have been 3034 major amputation cases.

March 26.—A British miners' conference decides to advise the men to accept Government proposals relating to wages and hours, thus averting a serious strike.

April 4.—A conference of representatives of capital and labor, in Great Britain, held under



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FRANK W. WOOLWORTH
(Whose first five-and-ten-cent store, in 1878, expanded into a chain of more than a thousand stores)

Government auspices, accepts unanimously a committee report recommending: the creation of a National Industrial Council of employers and employees, with Government recognition; a 48-hour week; increase in state provision for unemployed.

April 8.—The Department of Agriculture forecasts a winter-wheat crop of 837,000,000 bushels—50 per cent. larger than the five-year average.

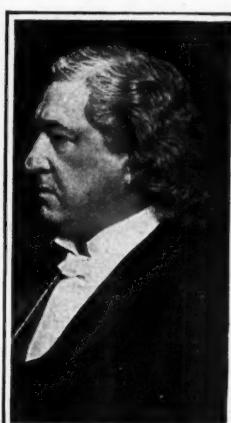
April 11.—A German official estimate of war losses places the total dead at 1,486,952, besides 134,000 died of disease.

April 12.—A new airplane record from London to Paris is made by a British army aviator, who covers 215 miles in 75 minutes.

OBITUARY

March 17.—Kenyon Cox, the mural painter and writer on art subjects, 62.

March 18.—William H. Pleasants, prominent in the coastwise steamship trade, 56. . . J. Taylor Ellison, elected to many offices in Virginia, 72.



JOHN ROGERS HEGEMAN
(For half a century an officer of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Society, and for the last twenty-eight years its president)

March 26.—James Alfred Roosevelt, director of electric light, power, and railway company in British Columbia, 34.

March 26.—Joseph P. Bass, for forty years editor of the Bangor (Me.) *Commercial*, 83.

March 28.—Henry Martyn Blossom, Jr., author of musical comedies, 53.

March 28.—Samuel T. Dutton, D. D., 69 (see page 480).

April 2.—Owen Brainard, of New York, a noted architect and consulting engineer, 54.

April 4.—Sir William Crookes, a famous British chemist and physicist, 86.

April 6.—John Rogers Hegeman, for twenty-seven years president of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 75. . . Donald Paige Frary, an authority on international affairs and on European government systems, 25. . . William Rheen, president of the Standard Oil Company of California, 57.

April 8.—Frank Winfield Woolworth, originator of the five-and-ten-cent store, 66.

April 9.—Sidney Drew, the comedian, 54.

April 10.—Robert H. Roy, a justice of the Supreme Court of New York, 51.

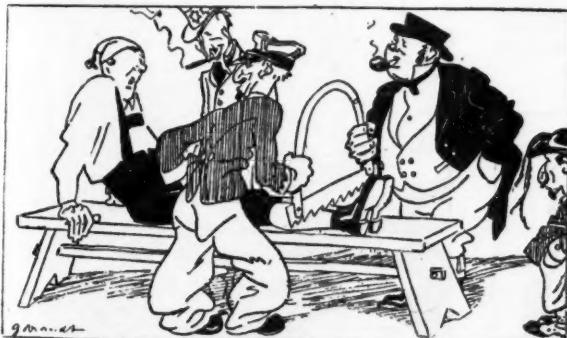
April 13.—Mrs. Phoebe Apperson Hearst, prominent in charitable and educational work in the West, 76.

THE PEACE CONFERENCE IN CARTOONS



THE MELTING POT
From the *Bulletin* (Sydney, Australia)

IT has seemed worth while, this month, to present a selection of cartoons reflecting opinion in widely separated capitals throughout the world on the doings at Paris. In many instances these revelations of national and racial sentiment give suggestive hints regarding the world's attitude towards the conference and its leaders.



PREPARING FOR THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

THE OPERATORS: "See, Michael, the amputations are necessary in order to make it possible for you to dance with us at the fête of the League of Nations."—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

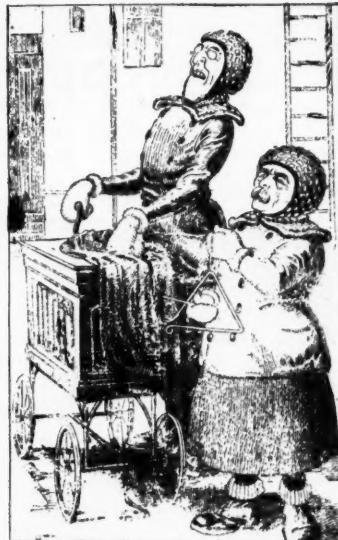


PEACE

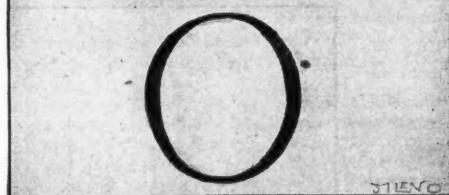
"We are now advancing with great strides."—From *Il 400* (Florence, Italy)



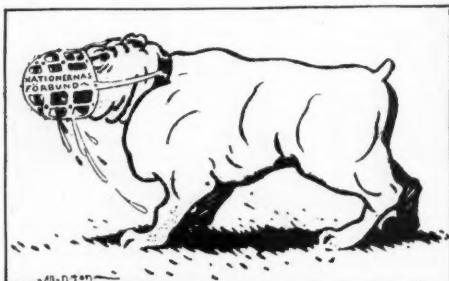
LLOYD GEORGE AND THE TUG OF PEACE
From the *Daily Express* (London)



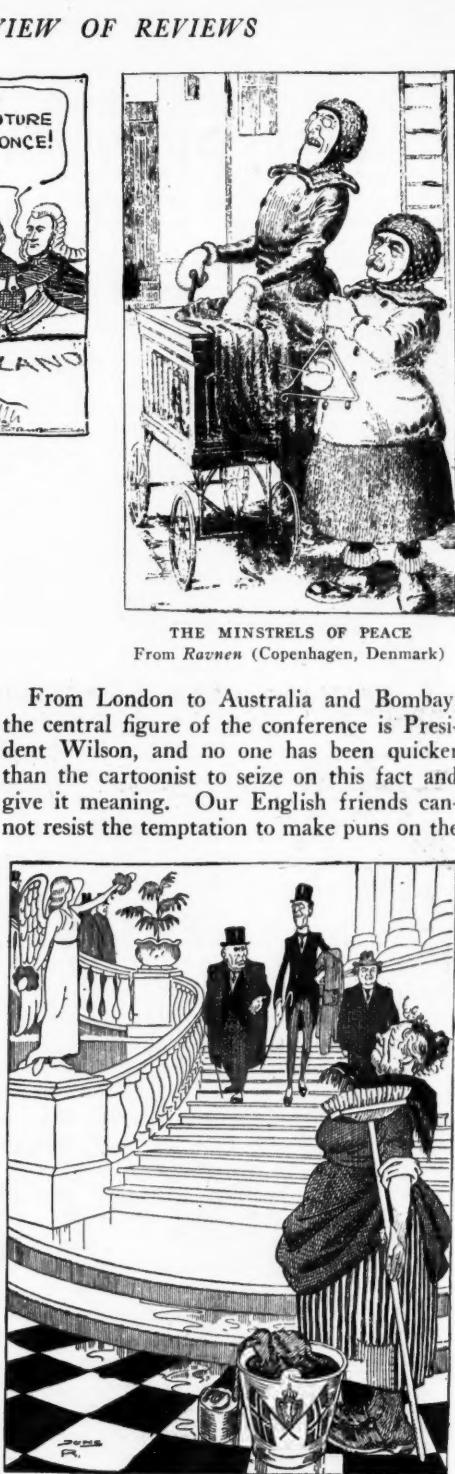
THE MINSTRELS OF PEACE
From *Ravnen* (Copenhagen, Denmark)



THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AND HOW IT WILL OPERATE
From *Blanco y Negro* (Madrid, Spain)



THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS AND THE DOG OF WAR
From *Sondags Nisse* (Stockholm, Sweden)



NORWAY'S PLACE
Mother Norway will certainly find a prominent place in the League of Nations.—From *Hvepsan* (Christiania, Norway)



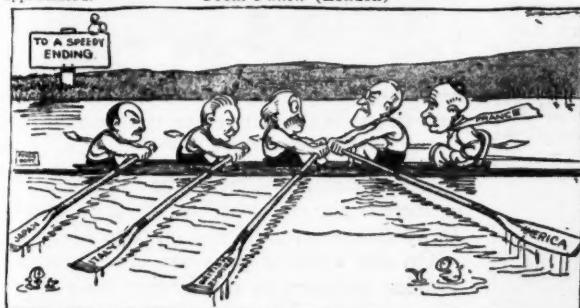
A HOME FROM HOME

PRESIDENT WILSON (quitting America in his Fourteen-League-of-Nations Boots): "It's time I was getting back to a hemisphere where I really am appreciated." From *Punch* (London)



"WOODROW, SPARE THAT TREE"

"It is hinted that President Wilson will return home unless his ideas are sanctioned in some form."—News Item.) From *The Bulletin* (Sydney, Australia)



HE "WOOD-ROW" THE
WRONG WAY
From the *Daily Express*
(London)



HOW WILL HE TURN OUT WHEN
GROWN UP?
From *Opinion* (London)



THE JUGGLER ON FOURTEEN POINTS
From the *Bulletin* (Sydney, Australia)



THE RETURN OF GARDENER WILSON
"Have I deceived myself? I planted olives and I find snap-dragons!"—From *Le Rire* (Paris)



OVERWEIGHTED

PRESIDENT WILSON: "Here's your olive branch, now get busy."

DOVE OF PEACE: "Of course I want to please everybody, but isn't this a bit thick?"—From *Punch* (London)



THE RIDDLE OF THE PEACE CONFERENCE

From *L'Asino* (Rome)



BETWEEN TWO STOOLS
From the *Bystander* (London)



A MUTUAL HOPE

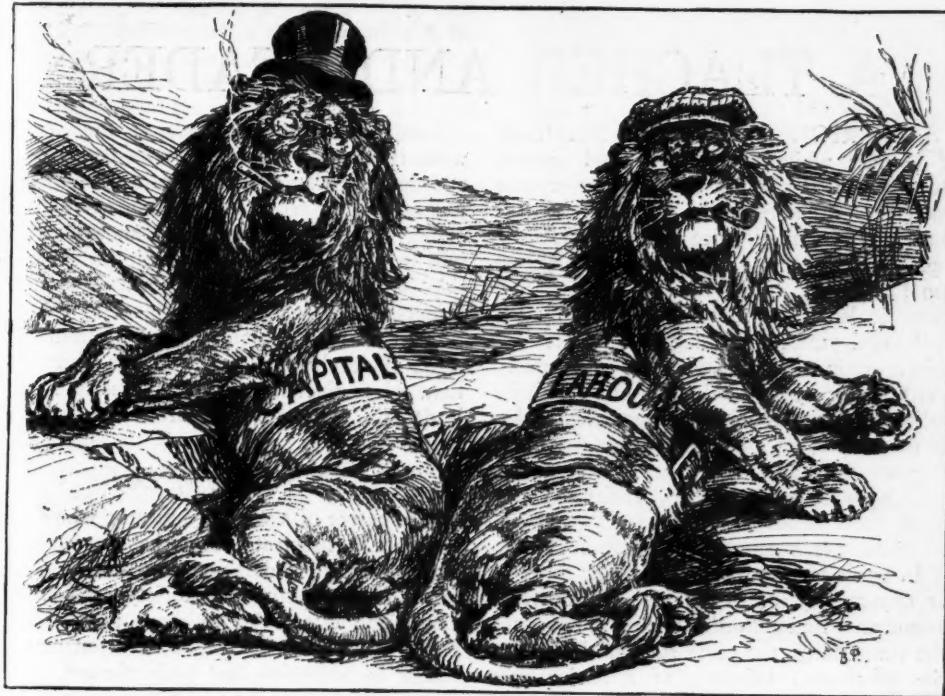
MR. WILSON: "I hope I don't intrude, Mr. Bull?"
MR. BULL: "I hope you don't, Mr. Wilson!"

From *John Bull* (London)



THE PEACE BIRD'S TASK

(In the Great European Peace Conference "Circus")
PROFESSOR WILSON: "A clever bird to write what I think and say!"
From the *Hindi Punch* (Bombay, India)



BOTH LIONS (together): "Unaccustomed as I am to lie down with anything but a lamb, still, for the public good . . ."—From *Punch* (London)



THE CRITIC
"I say, Bill, wot a ruddy mess those Bolshies are making of their country!"—From *Opinion* (London)



DON QUIXOTE [LABOR] AND THE WINDMILL—BUT IS IT GOOD BUSINESS?
From the *Passing Show* (London)

A TEACHER AND LEADER

A PERIOD of upheaval in human affairs while testing men and masses, throws into high relief the qualities of true leadership in individuals. As the generations grow in intelligence and in democratic equality, they are not so much swayed by personal authority at the hands of rulers, and they are less disposed to follow blindly the individual orator or demagogue, or the fanatical exponents of movements and creeds. With public opinion ruling in our relatively enlightened communities, personal leadership of the earlier types is so much less dominant that we seem at times to be inferior in the qualities which are supposed, traditionally, to mark the "heroes" or "representative men" or personages worthy to be named in history.

In point of fact, there was never so great an opportunity for the exercise of leadership as our own times afford. The more advanced the community, the more susceptible it is to the effort and influence of a leader who would carry it further in some aspect of social progress. The better attuned the instrument, the finer the results of the master hand that employs it.

The Nature of Modern Leadership

In the clash of arms and the crises of states, there is so much discussion and controversy about leaders and their capacities that we sometimes forget to analyze the nature of modern leadership. A man may be put in a place of high authority through the working of official systems without having been a leader in previous experience and without becoming one while in official power. The function of leadership becomes specialized and subdivided. The real leader may be the private adviser or the obscure adjutant, and not the man who is nominally at the head. When future Americans look back with due perspective upon the present age, the foremost men of achievement and leadership may not bear the names of those about whom we are now reading most frequently in the newspapers. Individuals or groups working serenely and unselfishly in the fields of science, of education, of public health, of international good-will,—may be placed at the very top of the list among the leaders of this generation.

Leadership counts for most in these days when it works in association with tendencies, and does not therefore stand out too conspicuously. Thus recent progress in aviation—owing much to one man and another who will in due time have just credit for leadership—has been amazingly accelerated because leadership was exerted where favoring opportunities were so numerous. An immense series of developments in the fields of invention, of engineering and of industry made leadership far more successful even though less noted.

A Modest Type of Leader

The career of a worthy educator who died last month illustrates remarkably well the new kind of leadership that accomplishes great results without notoriety, and with honor and esteem but without popular acclaim. Professor Samuel T. Dutton was a leader in education and philanthropy. He was not a challenging and bitter-tongued reformer, although he saw what was wrong in human relations with clearness, and had unfaltering courage in standing for justice. But it was not so much his mission to lead crusades, or to demand bold innovations, as to coöperate tactfully with wholesome tendencies of sound human progress, and help to construct the better order along with everybody else who was facing in the right direction.

To some readers this characterization may seem quite negative, if not commonplace and vague, when one seeks for "upstanding" heroes of another mold. Why, in these days when "current history" asserts itself in spectacular ways, should space be given to recording the qualities of a quiet, self-effacing educator, rather than to some other man whose recent death has been announced in large headlines? It is indeed quite possible that the man whose death is noted by millions or hundreds of millions may have been a true and typical leader, as well as a man of contemporary fame. This may be said in the most emphatic way of the late Theodore Roosevelt, whose power for almost forty years to influence and lead his fellow citizens lay in his being so essentially an embodiment of American qualities, and so fearless in sup-

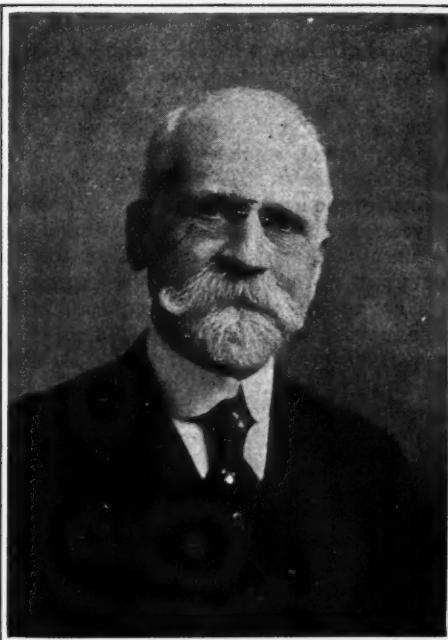
porting the things he believed in. The qualities of leadership were always present in Mr. Roosevelt, and their exercise did not await the political accidents which placed him in high office. No one was keener than Mr. Roosevelt to recognize the intrinsic qualities of leadership in all useful spheres of activity, and to distinguish between the genuine leader and the spurious, or between a worthy fame and an accidental notoriety.

Human Contacts as a Teacher

Professor Dutton was born, some seventy years ago, on a New Hampshire farm and had the heritage of a worthy and hard-working New England family. By his own efforts, he went through the preparatory academy and through Yale College, graduating when he was two or three years older than his classmates who had not been obliged to make their own way. But this relative maturity as a student was doubtless to his advantage. He was able at once to secure a good position as a school superintendent, and after a few years was called back to the university town, where he became first the head of a preparatory school and then Superintendent of Education for the City of New Haven. After some years in the pleasant environment of his alma mater, his professional work led him to that select part of Boston known as Brookline, where he had further opportunity to express, in fine results, his conception of what a public school system ought to be.

Almost twenty years ago he was brought to New York by the authorities of Columbia University in order that he might help to set the standards for the training of teachers and the direction of schools. He became a professor in Columbia, the chief of the School Administration Department in the Teachers' College, and the organizing head of what soon became the most famous of American establishments for the education of children, namely, the Horace Mann School, which is an adjunct of the Teachers' College. During these two opening decades of the Twentieth Century, Morningside Heights in New York City has been our foremost center of experiment and influence in the training of professional teachers. Its influences have been world-wide and its policies have been shaping human progress.

Professor Dutton had, through text books and personal addresses, become widely influential among American educators before his work at Teachers' College began. This



THE LATE SAMUEL T. DUTTON

influence was greatly extended by reason of the opportunities afforded him in New York to help in the professional instruction of student teachers from all parts of the United States and from almost every foreign country. Since 1915 he had been Professor Emeritus, and being relieved of his active duties in Teachers' College and as principal of the Horace Mann School, he had found opportunity to devote himself to various public enterprises, wholly in the spirit of what had been the work of his entire career. It would take half a page to list even briefly the activities that he aided.

He was a profound believer in the quiet growth of human society through educational processes. The technical phases of school organization and management never obscured his vision of the broad social objects of education. His sympathies followed the teachers he helped to train as they went everywhere to act as local leaders. He found time for occasional visits to Europe and Asia, and never went anywhere without making some real and lasting contribution to the advancement of institutions for permanent culture. Thus he became a trustee of a college in China, and one of the principal officers and advisers of the American College for Women in Constantinople.

Leadership Through Harmony and Tact

Dr. Dutton's was a rare talent for useful effort through organization. The marked success of his leadership lay in his ability to bring together people who were of like minds and sympathies, so that their united efforts might be effective. He was one of the most devoted of the leaders who have for a number of years past been trying to bring the best sentiment of America into union for the advancement of the cause of world peace. He was not merely a man of sentiment in his opposition to war, but he was a practical student of international affairs, with wide acquaintance and experience. He was the American member of an International Commission that visited Bulgaria, Serbia, Greece, Rumania and Turkey in 1913, and reported upon the Balkan War with particular reference to current reports of atrocities and violations of international law.

During the war period he was one of the principal organizers of relief work, and an indefatigable leader in the American Committee for Armenian and Syrian relief, while aiding in the direction of other relief societies. His judgment was so valuable, and his spirit so harmonizing that his presence and help lent assurance to many a committee. He knew how to get groups moving toward substantial success in their aims, without seeming to dominate. He was gentle and unobtrusive, but always equal to the occasion. He was one of the principal founders of the World Court League, which has in recent weeks and months been doing much to unify the efforts of societies which have had the common ideal of international justice and of the substitution of legal and political remedies for the disasters of war. Through his efforts as its most active member, the World Court League with affiliated societies was brought into general accord with the League to Enforce Peace and other American agencies which have supported the general plans of the Paris Conference for a League of Nations.

Professor Dutton had no thought of himself as a leader of men, much less as a citizen of distinction and eminence, widely recognized for character and achievement. He was wholly free from vanity and self-consciousness. He could act with quick initiative, without timidity but also without noise or demonstration. He had not merely the spirit to serve, but he was trained to serve capably. He had none of that false kind of

modesty which some men of sensitive disposition cultivate as an excuse to themselves for dodging responsibilities. Dr. Dutton never shirked, but knew how to bear responsibility openly, without assertion. He was cheerful and companionable, with an unfailing sense of humor. It was a privilege to serve with so excellent a comrade.

Opportunity of the Teaching Profession

In these times of change and unrest, it is well to look for firm foundations and for elements of stability. Our best hopes rest in such qualities of character as are exemplified in the personality and career of men like Samuel T. Dutton. More than ever, our American society is to be influenced and shaped by the schools. The teaching profession has increasing opportunities before it. The school takes on a fresh conception of its functions as regards the moral, physical and economic, as well as the purely mental training of children. A man who, like Dr. Dutton, has been able to inspire teachers, is to be reckoned with when we are studying the new times in their relation to the past.

All teachers are underpaid and have many sacrifices to make. Every good citizen should do what he can to see that the teaching profession is better maintained. But, meanwhile, the teacher may find compensation in the opportunities that lie around him for leadership and influence, not merely in the school itself. The value of America to itself and to the world is to be found in the quality of its neighborhoods, small and large alike. All the great causes of the present day, the work and support of the Red Cross for example, would languish if there should fail the spirit of coöperation, under wise and intelligent leadership, in each of thousands of neighborhoods.

It is this kind of guidance and initiative that makes a country like America what it is, and that constitutes the difference between modern leadership for an intelligent democracy and that of former periods. It was once the fashion to tell every boy that he ought to be ambitious because he might some time become President of the United States. It is the wiser and better plan to teach every boy that he may be a useful citizen in his own community, and may contribute something towards the well-being of the country. Where there is willingness to serve, along with definite training, there will be no lack of fit leadership for whatever work the times may demand.

A. S.

EUROPE'S CONVULSIONS AND THE PARIS CONFERENCE

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

[Mr. Simonds' article, herewith, comes half by mail and half by cable. It reflects with undoubted accuracy the situation as it appeared to the best-informed observers in Paris from the middle of March to the middle of April. We may indulge strong hopes that May will bring some return of optimism to Europe, but it is worth while to record the doubts and worries of March and April.—THE EDITOR]

THE exigencies of mail and of cable compel me to divide my article each month into two distinct parts. The present portion for May covers the period between the 15th of March and the 1st of April. I shall cover events from the 1st of April to the middle of the month by cable later.

What I desire to discuss here and now are:

- (1) The return of the President;
- (2) The paralysis of the Paris Conference, and
- (3) The rise of the Bolshevik storm in the East.

I. PRESIDENT WILSON'S RETURN

When President Wilson arrived in France for the second time, in the middle of March, he found awaiting him a cordial welcome and on the whole a more genuine welcome from the representatives of the governments of Europe, as distinct from the people, than that of his first coming. His speeches in America had won instant and widespread approval in Europe. At the very outset Europe (and in the main this means Britain, France and Italy) had concluded to accept Mr. Wilson not merely as the Ambassador of the United States but also as the spokesman of the united American people. Political differences within the United States were interpreted as having only domestic significance. Mr. Wilson had become in the eyes of Europe as in fact, the exponent of the will of his country.

Coming to Europe Mr. Wilson was the evangel of the gospel of the League of Nations; and for the masses of the plain people of Europe the League of Nations was a symbol of a settlement which should end war, begin peace on a new basis, rescue man-

kind from all the horrors of war and all the perils of armed peace. As the spokesman of America, he was for exactly the same vast number of people the representative of the country whose soldiers had arrived tardily but in time to deliver the decisive thrust, and whose enormous resources, generously distributed, had brought salvation to devastated regions, conquered provinces, and otherwise abandoned districts.

From the beginning, then, Mr. Wilson was accepted by the people of Europe; and whatever was the desire or the will of the governments of Europe, they had no choice but to accept Mr. Wilson, not merely as the spokesman of America but as possessing in Europe too great prestige to be opposed. Unmistakably not a few statesmen and diplomats regarded with doubt and suspicion Mr. Wilson's program of the League of Nations. The abstract theories left the practical men cold. But the practical political problems of their own situation compelled their assent. European statesmen and people alike were at one in recognizing that it was a matter of life and death that America should remain in Europe until the war had been liquidated and peace fortified. The statesmen could regard the League of Nations project of Mr. Wilson as the price they must pay to keep America here. The people might and did regard the League of Nations as a moral guarantee of future security.

Europe having arrived at this decision permitted Mr. Wilson to make the formulation of the program of the League of Nations the first business of the Paris Conference. When this was done Mr. Wilson returned to America. While he was on his way home Europe heard for the first time in the Senate an authentic voice of American op-

position. It identified that voice with the extreme utterances of certain Republican statesmen who clamored for an instant, complete and final withdrawal of America from Europe. It recognized in this demand a death-sentence to the hopes of all Europe on the Allied side for the future. It recognized that if America should withdraw her aid, her material and her moral support, the element of hope would disappear and the way would be open for the coming of Bolshevism from the East.

Therefore in the period between the departure and the return of Mr. Wilson there was a remarkable transformation in the European situation—a transformation among the statesmen. The people continued to be sustained by the hope that America led by Mr. Wilson would remain. The statesmen recognized, or believed that they recognized, that only by the victory of Mr. Wilson in America could the continued participation of the United States in the European task be assured. Therefore on his return they welcomed Mr. Wilson in a more frankly friendly spirit than before, since for them he had become an Ally at last, the spokesman in America of the cause which was lost if America abandoned Europe. This roughly represents the history between the sailing of Mr. Wilson for America and his arrival at Brest for the second time on March 13.

II. THE PARALYSIS OF THE PARIS CONFERENCE

When Mr. Wilson reached Paris he found this situation: The American Commission in conference with the representatives of the other nations had practically completed a program which amounted to the formulation of the terms of a preliminary Treaty of Peace to be served forthwith upon Germany. In my article for April I sketched the outline of the terms. This preliminary Treaty of Peace was in substance to fix the frontiers of Germany, the extent of the disarmament of Germany, the size of the financial reparation to be paid. It was to follow the analogy of the preliminary Treaty of Peace made between France and Germany within a few weeks after the signing of the armistice which ended the military operations of the Franco-Prussian war. The definite peace was to follow later, when the intricate but relatively minor questions had been resolved by expert means.

In this preliminary Treaty of Peace there

was to have been included a declaration of principle covering the League of Nations, but the covenant and the exact permanent form of its association were to be drafted for the final treaty. This was not due to any desire to shelve or to subordinate the principle of the League of Nations, but purely and simply to the recognition of the extent of amendment which was necessary and the imperative necessity of immediate action in the direction of a preliminary Treaty of Peace.

No sooner had Mr. Wilson reached Paris than by a single statement he seemed to demolish the whole program. He asserted that the League of Nations must be an integral part of the preliminary Treaty of Peace and demanded the complete change of program which this involved.

We had then for something like forty-eight hours a tense situation. In the end the representatives of the Allied nations bowed to Mr. Wilson, the program was changed, and the Conference undertook the difficult task of combining the League of Nations, which involved the reorganization of the future society of the world, and the preliminary settlement of peace terms with the great enemy.

The result of the change in program was almost tragic. It amounted to a practical paralysis (for the time being) of the entire business of making peace. While conference after conference sought to fix the precise and permanent language of the definite Covenant of the League of Nations, other conferences wrestled unsuccessfully with the practical problems of re-making the map of Europe. We settled and unsettled the question of Poland half a dozen times. The dispute between the Italians and the Jugo-Slavs mounted hourly. The division between the Rumanians and the Serbs became bitterer with each day. Half a dozen little wars went forward while half a dozen commissions sitting in Paris strove to find a solution on paper for questions which were already being resolved by force.

In a word the Paris Conference, after three months in session and four and a half months after the first armistice, had fallen into precisely the condition of the Congress of Vienna a little more than a century ago. It had so far been unable to make any practical decisions and the single time when it seemed on the edge of making a practical decision it abandoned that under the impulsion of Mr. Wilson.

III. THE RISE OF THE BOLSHEVIST STORM IN THE EAST

Meantime the situation had undergone a change of momentous character. From the East of Europe there had come news hardly less impressive than the announcement which reached Vienna that Napoleon had landed from Elba. With no preliminary Treaty of Peace made, Paris learned in the later days of March that Bolshevism had established itself at Budapest and the Hungarian Soviet had extended its hand to Moscow.

Nor is this all. Of a sudden at the moment it became known in Paris that Hungary had been claimed by the Bolsheviks, it was also learned that Poland was undermined to the point of collapse, that Rumania was in the gravest peril, and that the last vestiges of Ukrainian resistance to Bolshevism were crumbling as the Soviet forces arrived at Odessa. In a word, Eastern Europe was at the mercy of the new enemy.

Coincident with this news came the mounting conviction that Germany would refuse to sign the Treaty of Peace which the Allies were vainly seeking to formulate. It became appreciated that German strategy would be the strategy of Trotsky and Lenin at Brest-Litovsk, to refuse assent and to make no active resistance, to permit the armies of the Western Powers to cross the Rhine and advance whither they would, relying alike upon the influence of Bolshevik propaganda upon the armies and upon domestic unrest in the Allied countries to produce a situation which in the end would permit the resurgence of Germany.

While Paris was thus attempting to liquidate a victory it perceived that a new war was opening and the very bases of just settlement of the previous conflict being destroyed. It saw Bolshevism in a few brief months passing the Carpathian bulwark against which three Russian invasions had beaten in vain, and it beheld Germany arriving at a situation which offered at least as brilliant promise of ultimate renaissance as that which faced Prussia after Jena had been liquidated at Tilsit.

On the day when Paris learned that the Bolsheviks had taken Budapest the Committee of Ten, which is the master of events here, debated the ultimate disposition of the German cables. On the day when the news arrived that Odessa was falling the same Council of Ten agreed to send a mission to Syria to investigate the will of the people

as to their future state. In the hour when the Council of Ten solemnly resolved to accord to the Protestants of the Masurian Lake district the right of self determination Paris and London were apprised of a revolt in Egypt growing out of the Egyptian demand for self-determination in accordance with the principles of the League of Nations. In the hour when the Italians served an imperative order upon the Council of Ten asserting their purpose to hold the port of Fiume, the sole avenue of the Jugo-Slavs to the open sea furnished with adequate railroad communications, the Allies adopted in principle the allocation of the city of Danzig to the Poles as an essential to the existence of an economic, independent Poland.

Perhaps these not unimportant circumstances are an adequate picture of the fashion in which the Paris Conference, with an industry which passes power of language to describe and a concentration beyond the limits of belief, addressed itself for the fourth month to the solution of the moral, ethnographic and economic problems of two thousand years, while Bolshevism advanced from Moscow to Budapest.

It may be that the arrival of Bolshevism at Budapest will bring decision in Paris. In the judgment of many of the best-informed observers such a decision, however promptly arrived at now, may come too late. In their opinion, whether we decide upon the articles of the Treaty of Peace now or not, we shall be at war again before they are signed. The Paris *Temps* said in so many words, "The war commences again." This war is not of course immediately a new war with Germany, but it is a new war and out of it no nation but Germany can draw profit. There was an hour when we could have sustained the Ukrainians, the Rumanians, the Poles and the Czechoslovaks, when we could have transferred war material and a certain number of troops to their areas and erected a barrier—a living barrier of more than fifty millions of people—between the Baltic and the Black Sea against Bolshevism, which was still restricted to ancient Muscovy. Bolshevism in its essence is communistic, international, class war. We had four months ago in the Ukraine an economic system of small holdings which supplied the reason for Ukrainian resistance to Bolshevik Communism. We had in Rumania and in Poland as well as in Czechoslovakia an explosion of nationalism incident to the realization of age-long patriotic aspirations.

We left Poland, Rumania, Ukrainia unsupported. We drew armistice lines which turned thousands of Rumanians temporarily over to the mercy of Hungary, who used their day of grace for murder. We permitted the Poles and the Ukrainians to consume against each other the munitions needed to resist the Bolsheviks. Now Bolshevism has established a corridor between the Poles and the Rumanians and approaches Vienna.

The arrival of the news that the Bolsheviks are at Budapest brought to Paris something approximating panic but it did not bring any perceptible evidence of a policy. The onrush of the Bolsheviks broke the Eastern front in March, 1919, exactly as the "Kaiser Battle" of Ludendorff broke our western front in March, 1918. Then we had resort to unity of command and under a common commander presently had our own July counter-offensive. I do not think anyone can fail now to recognize the fact that Bolshevism will advance until it arrives at that place where Western civilization at last chooses to fight it, whether it be at the Danube, the Rhine or the Channel. I do not pretend to know whether Germany will go Bolshevik, as some say, or whether it will await the hour when Bolshevism has so

broken the victorious Western Powers that it may rise again as Germany, as Prussia, Austria and the smaller states of Europe rose against Napoleon after Moscow. If Germany goes Bolshevik we shall have nothing left to us in Europe west of the Rhine and the Alps. If Germany awaits her hour we shall have still to fight Bolshevism and at the same time to impose our will by arms upon Germany.

Such was the situation in the closing days of March. I do not suppose that any group of men in all human history tried more faithfully, more earnestly to restore the world than did the men who made up the Paris Conference, but the single fact which emerges is that the war was so long, the destruction of institutions as well as of life and property was so wide ranging, that only decision and prompt decision would have avoided what had become one of the greatest crises in history. For I do not think anyone in Paris or out of it failed to recognize that the crisis of March, 1919, was quite as terrifying as that crisis which was ushered in a year earlier by the falling of the shells of the Big Bertha in the vicinity of the place where the Conference of Peace now performed its daily labors.

BY CABLE (APRIL 14)

IV. AGREEMENTS REACHED REGARDING GERMANY

A month ago I told my readers that there was at least a fair possibility that the treaty of peace would be written and ready for submission to the Germans before my article was in their hands. There is that same possibility now—but I do not think there has been any great increase in likelihood of prompt settlement in the month that has passed. We have had on the contrary a series of tides which have ebbed and flowed, leaving us alternately stranded and at the mercy of the current. At the present moment, on April 14, we are actually confronted by a very real reaction in Europe induced by the delays and failures of the Peace Conference in reaching its decision, and by the rise and advance of Bolshevism in the East.

As it stands at the moment, the Paris Conference has practically agreed upon guarantees to be taken against Germany to reserve the Rhine as a military frontier. It has agreed that Germany shall pay the costs of

the war and has fixed thirty (30) billions of dollars as an approximation of the sum of money that she will have to pay, specifying five (5) billions as the immediate payment within the next two years. The Conference also is approaching a solution of the Saar Valley coal question, which will leave this district in French hands, although the terms of French possession may be somewhat camouflaged.

As far as Germany is concerned, one great outstanding problem is whether Poland shall have Danzig and its corridor to the Baltic sea, or will be compelled to depend upon a German outlet for the future. The Polish Premier, Paderewski, is here in Paris at this moment, making his final appeal for Poland, with frank realization abroad that, if Danzig does not go to Poland, Poland may go to Bolshevism. Once the Polish question is settled, the Germans can be invited to Versailles and directed to sign the treaty.

But will they sign it? This is one of the greatest pre-occupations of the present hour. The majority of conservative men are of

opinion that, particularly if Danzig goes to Poland, the Germans will not sign, but will adopt the Brest-Litovsk course of Trotsky and Lenin, and at the same time refuse to sign and concede their inability to resist Allied military pressure. There are those who believe that, even if Danzig does not go to Poland, the Germans will not sign a document as drastic as will in any event be framed.

Apart from purely German questions, all of which seem on the point of settlement (but any one of which, according to precedents, may be reopened, with delaying consequences), the problem of Fiume is the most serious at this moment. Italian claims upon this sole outlet of the northern half of the new Jugo-Slav state have been pressed with ever-increasing energy. Twice in the last few weeks, the Italians have threatened to quit the Peace Conference if they were not promised this port. A compromise, creating an international port at Fiume, has gained much ground, as had a similar solution for the Danzig difficulty. Both compromises have their essential weakness, and President Wilson, up to the present moment, has set his face firmly against Italian possession of Fiume—a course which is supported by all right-thinking Americans.

Behind the Fiume question there lie a dozen different problems, all of which must require some time to settle. Difficulties between Jugo-Slavs and Rumanians, between Rumanians and Hungarians, between Poles and Czechoslovaks, and the whole tremendous problem of Russian frontiers, await decision. Practically no progress has been made in the matter of settling the Turkish Empire problems; and the nationalistic uprising in Egypt has given a wholly different complexion to the Pan-Arabic movement in Syria, Mesopotamia and Arabia.

In sum, then, while a certain promise of decision has been reached, both as to the eastern and the western frontiers of Germany, and the financial reparations to be demanded, all Eastern Europe and Western Asia await the action of the Paris Conference, or rather are marching from one form of anarchy to another while Paris prolongs discussion.

It remains now to discuss the amazing reaction which has been the outstanding feature of the last ten days. This reaction had its origin in two spontaneous outbursts, and in French sentiment against the direction which the Paris Conference seemed to be

taking under the joint leadership of Lloyd George and President Wilson. Last December, Great Britain had its khaki election, which gave the conservatives a great majority, and gave Mr. Lloyd George complete control, on his pledge that a strong peace should be made with Germany, and that this should include putting the costs of the war upon the enemy. At all times and in all circumstances, the French have been united in their demand that Germany should pay the costs of war, and that France should have guarantees for the future of a substantial military sort against a new German attack.

V. POLITICS AND BOLSHEVISM

Discussions in the Paris Conference after the President's return caused long delays, and involved disputes over guarantees for France both on the Rhine and along the Saar. It was the apparent desire both of the British Premier and President Wilson, in the face of Bolshevik uprisings in Europe, to modify the terms against Germany, and to negotiate with the Bolsheviks. This precipitated a storm in England, which amounted to a demonstration that Mr. Lloyd George must change his policy or lose his directing power.

In France, the outbreak was more gradual, but no less pronounced. The French felt themselves to have been abandoned by their British Allies, and suspected that peace terms that were being formulated would leave them bankrupt financially, as a result of German devastations and of expenses for their own defense, and would also leave them helpless in the face of a resuscitated Germany, within a few years. There was very clear opinion in France, expressed in many directions, that international finance had taken advantage of Mr. Wilson's well-known idealism, to prepare the way for saving Germany from the consequence of her crimes, and thus smoothing a path for the prompt realization of German industry.

The storm which broke took the shape of a violent newspaper campaign against Mr. Lloyd George in the British press, and of outspoken declarations in both Houses of Parliament against all the policies that the British Prime Minister was believed to have been advocating in the Paris Conference. Mr. Lloyd George found himself suddenly confronted with a choice between continuing in his close support of President Wilson at

the cost of political disaster at home, and completely changing front and supporting France's policy and French claims.

The British Prime Minister chose the latter course, with the result that President Wilson, without warning, discovered himself more or less isolated and in the presence of a new association between France and England, based alike upon the principles of a "Strong Peace" against Germany, and of vigorous action against Bolshevism. This change of British purpose was followed promptly by polite but unmistakable intimations that British support of those amendments to the Covenant of the League of Nations which were asked by President Wilson as the result of American criticism—particularly modifications with respect to the Monroe Doctrine—could not find immediate favor. This meant that if the British pursued their course the League of Nations covenant would inevitably be rejected by the United States Senate. This was the point at which Mr. Wilson directed his official spokesman in Paris to announce that he had sent for the *George Washington*, and the American correspondents here were officially invited to speculate upon the meaning of this gesture, which recalled the course of Disraeli at the Congress of Berlin.

On that occasion, in 1878, the British Prime Minister, faced with opposition, ordered a special train to take the English delegation home.

Following this gesture, there was a period of intense excitement, a great deal of bad feeling, and an unmistakable change in the tone and temper of the whole Conference. This new temper still remains. Solidarity between the French and English was not shaken by President Wilson's course, but on the contrary, in the debates that followed, the British support of France more and more increased.

On the other hand, it was true that both sides—contemplating the possibility of a collapse of the Paris Conference after five months—presently resumed their conversations. If this was not done in the old spirit, at least it was with some appreciation of the common necessity of making peace, and the particular political necessities of statesmen engaged in the task. We had, therefore, after a tense moment, the gradual resumption of activity, and a certain amount of progress, which I have indicated already.

The single substantial circumstance that

it is necessary to emphasize now is the fact that there has been a total change of view among the peoples of Allied countries with respect to the Peace Conference. Hopes of real settlement, and of the laying of the foundations of world peace in future through the League of Nations, have largely disappeared. In the discussions of the last three weeks, the League of Nations covenant itself has almost passed out of sight.

This is due to two circumstances. First it is due to the feeling in Great Britain and in France that President Wilson and Mr. Lloyd George—that is, the American and British representatives who gave to the League of Nations its inception, its form, and, its real strength in Paris—had sacrificed to this project the interests which to the British and the French people seemed of primary importance, namely security against a new German attack and reparation in fullest measure. And second, it was due to the feeling that with the storm of Bolshevism arising in the East and sweeping westward irresistibly, counting Budapest and Odessa among its recent conquests, the League of Nations which was not able and ready to deal with this peril by force when necessary, was, after all, little more than an academic ideal.

Thus, in unmistakable fashion, a reaction had set in. The dreams and hopes of four months ago, had come to seem like illusions and disappointments to millions of people. This emotion endures, and it must be recognized in America if one is to understand future developments in Paris. British anxiety to please America, to extend good feeling between the two nations, and to expand the association of the two English-speaking countries, in some considerable measure endures; but there is no longer any readiness or willingness to subordinate to this the practical, Continental understanding with France, or to sacrifice to it the claims against Germany, growing out of the last war.

When I came to Europe, four months ago, the note of idealism was everywhere. To-day, pessimism and realism are everywhere to be felt. Hope in the League of Nations has declined, as the Paris Conference which was in itself accepted as a preliminary League of Nations, has more and more broken down in the face of the real problems of European peace.

It may be that with the completion of the task, new confidence will return; but for the moment it has vanished.

THREE ESSENTIALS OF AERONAUTICS

BY REAR-ADmirAL ROBERT E. PEARY, U. S. N., RETIRED

(Chairman, National Aerial Coast Patrol Commission; President, Aerial League of America; Member of the Board of Governors, Aero Club of America)

AMONG the Titanic proposals now before the United States, there is a group of three new figures, such as have never before presented themselves.

These three figures are brothers. Their family name is Aeronautics. Their individual names are: *The United States, the First Air Power in the World; a Separate Department of Aeronautics; an Aerial Coast Patrol.*

These figures are neither academic nor theoretical. They are as living as breath and blood. On them in the future will hinge the security of our national existence.

To those who have followed, with keenest interest, the astonishing progress of aeronautics and aviation during the past few years, certain things of the near future, the enumeration of which may startle the layman, are as definite as if already materialized.

The next war (with apologies to the League of Nations) will be fought and won in the air.

The military air equipment of a country will overshadow in importance its army and navy combined.

The air equipment of a country, military and commercial, will be its greatest individual asset.

In order to put the layman in touch, or somewhat in touch, with the immensity of this matter of aeronautics, it seems desirable to note some primary things.

The atmosphere is the greatest thing on earth. It is a great ocean, sweeping unbroken around the entire globe. Aeronautics and Aviation mean the conquest and utilization of this great ocean, for travel and transportation of all kinds.

Certain peculiarities of the utilization of

this great unbroken ocean are of the utmost import. Some of these are as follows:

With its utilization, every city, town, village, in fact every bit of land or water anywhere on the face of the globe becomes a port of possible departure into it, a point of possible arrival from it.

In this new ocean, the route between any two points is a straight line between these two points. In this new ocean are no shore lines or mountain ranges, and no roads have to be built, adverse air currents being the only obstacles. The number of roads is infinite and they are already laid.

Stop a moment and grasp the meaning of these statements, which are neither dreams nor fantastic imaginings, but simple recitals of fact.

Then it may not be difficult to see, with those who are looking into the future, watching the startling progress of Aeronautics—the air filled with thousands of airplanes engaged in the transportation of passengers and material, and busy with numerous other occupations such as are now carried on by vehicles of transportation upon the land and sea.

For several years the writer has urged in every possible way, in season and out of season, the three great things noted at the beginning of this article.

It has seemed that not only the necessity for keeping pace with other nations, but also our national pride as well, should inspire us with the determination to be *the first air power in the world*. Our resources, our means, our well-known mechanical and engineering skill and ability, render it perhaps easier for us than any other nation to attain and hold this appropriate position.

The extent of our national domain and the fact that we have an imperial coast line on two great oceans, demand a large military

air equipment; and the wide expanses of our great country permit the utilization to the fullest degree of all the commercial possibilities of aerial navigation.

To achieve this position, undivided and concentrated authority and responsibility are absolutely essential. To those who are informed in this field, this statement seems to be so axiomatic as to be impossible of argument.

It means a Separate, Independent Department of Aeronautics, with one of the ablest organizers and executives in the country at its head, to have complete and undivided control of ALL the nation's aeronautic activities.

The desired great results have not been, will not be, and cannot be, obtained under the present divided control in which several departments have separate and varying organizations, methods and programs.

This statement would also seem axiomatic, but as is well known, truth never lacks for opponents. Opposition to an independent department of aeronautics has come:

First—From those departments which, having an aeronautic division, are loath to give it up.

Second—From those who honestly have not been able to grasp the great importance and enormous possibilities of aeronautics; and

Third—From obscure and powerful influences which have been difficult to locate.

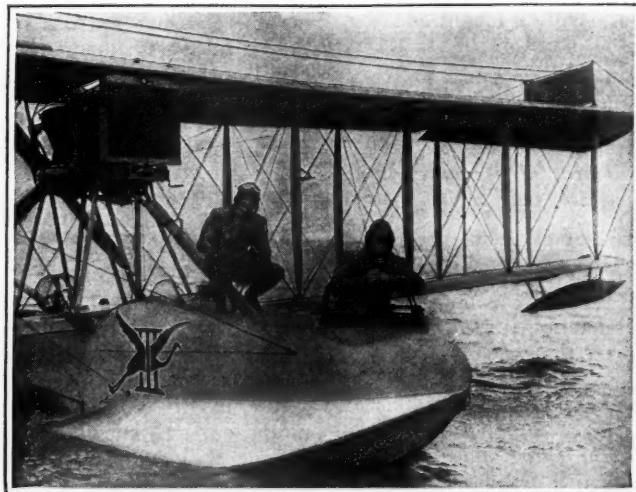
Possibly, however, the greatest obstacle to the establishment of such a department has been the inertia arising from the general public's lack of knowledge in regard to this new and astoundingly rapid growing thing.

That obstacle is being removed with gratifying speed through the education of the public, and with its disappearance, the creation of centralized control—a department of aeronautics—is inevitable. Bills for this purpose will be introduced in the next Congress, as they have been in previous ones, and while their passage may be delayed by hostile influences, their eventual passage is inevitable.

Just a few words in regard to the Aerial Coast Patrol proposition:

To those at all familiar with the aerial coast patrol work of foreign countries during the recent war, it is well recognized that this country must guard from the air not only its own immediate coast lines, but must patrol aerially every sea approach to the continent of North America.

We must have a great Aerial Coast Patrol System, extending on the Atlantic from Cape Farewell to the Panama Canal, and from the Canal to the Aleutian Archipelago on the Pacific.



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AERIAL COAST PATROL

(Too little is known of the splendid work done by our naval aviators on our own coast. They are equipped with the wireless telephone and thus can communicate with headquarters while in the air. Our photographs show the working of the telephone)



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THE GIANT BRITISH DIRIGIBLE "R-33," STARTING ON HER MAIDEN VOYAGE

(With her sister ship, the *R-34*, this vessel represents Britain's improvement on the Zeppelin rigid type of airship. She is 670 feet long and 80 feet in diameter, but weighs less than 30 tons. Nineteen hydrogen-filled balloonettes inside the aluminum framework sustain the vessel. Motive power is furnished by five 250-horsepower engines, carried in four gondolas. On one trial voyage this British dirigible returned to her hangar after a flight lasting nineteen hours. It is expected that she can cross the Atlantic, with favorable winds, in less than two days—then turn around without landing on the American side and make the return voyage home)

TRAVEL BY AIR ROUTES OVER LAND AND SEA

THE TRANSATLANTIC RACE—TRANSITION FROM WAR TO PEACE CONDITIONS—COMMERCIAL AERONAUTICS—PROGRESS OF THE DIRIGIBLE

BY FRANCIS ARNOLD COLLINS

AT least a score of aircraft, of varied design, flying the flags of six nations, are being prepared for transatlantic flight. No contest has probably ever aroused so general an international rivalry, or faced so extreme a hazard. The oversea flight is the severest, as it is the most picturesque, demonstration of flying craft, and of the skill and daring of air pilots. The successful Atlantic crossing by aircraft, so confidently predicted, will close, dramatically, its amazing war activities and inaugurate its commercial conquests.

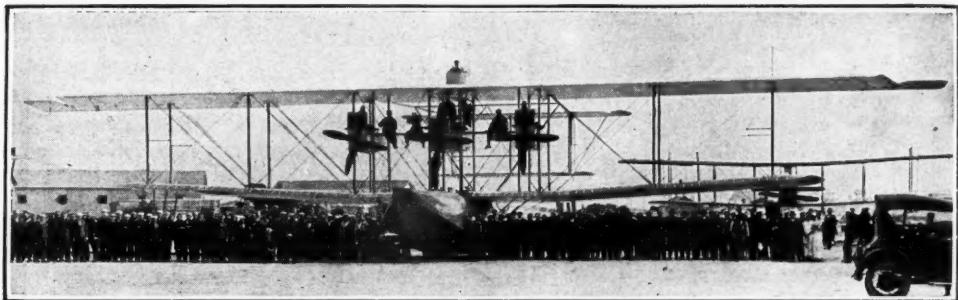
The United States enters the contest with



A NAVY AIRPLANE EN ROUTE
FROM HAMPTON ROADS TO
NEW YORK

a formidable fleet of aircraft. Our main dependence is probably the great Navy flying boats of the N. C. 1 type, which are now being tuned up for the race. One of these airboats with a wing spread of 125 feet has actually carried 51 passengers in flight, reaching a speed of upwards of 100 miles an hour. By utilizing this carrying capacity to stow away gasoline the boat, with a crew of four men and their provisions, will have a cruising radius of over 2000 miles. At least one of these boats has been equipped with four Liberty Motors developing over 1200 horsepower, which gives it four chances to one over a single motored machine. America and England will coöperate in placing swift torpedo-boat destroyers at intervals of sixty miles along the course, which will be in constant communication by wireless telegraph or telephone with the flying craft.

An army pilot may attempt the flight with one of the huge high-powered Martin bombers. The craft has a wing spread of



THE UNITED STATES NAVY'S CANDIDATE IN THE TRANSATLANTIC AIR RACE—THE N. C. 1 TYPE

(These Navy-Curtiss machines have a wing spread of 125 feet, and are equipped with three and four Liberty motors. The three-motored machine can travel 100 miles an hour, and can carry a load of 24,000 pounds. Each engine requires 36 gallons of gasoline per hour. Estimating twenty hours for the longest "leg" of the transatlantic journey, such an airplane must carry gasoline weighing 12,000 pounds)

100 feet, an unusual carrying capacity, and a speed higher than that of the flying boats. The land machine carries no pontoons of any kind, but should it be forced down in the water it is planned to send up a small balloon attached to the forward part of the craft, which will serve to keep it afloat indefinitely, as well as signal over an extended radius for assistance.

It is rumored in the trade that at least two aircraft manufacturers are working on special machines for oversea flights whose secrets are being carefully guarded. America will also be represented in the contest by at least two airships. The largest of the Naval dirigibles, a 200-foot blimp, is being made ready, and a well-known balloon manufacturer has constructed a giant dirigible 650 feet in length designed for oversea flying.

British Competitors

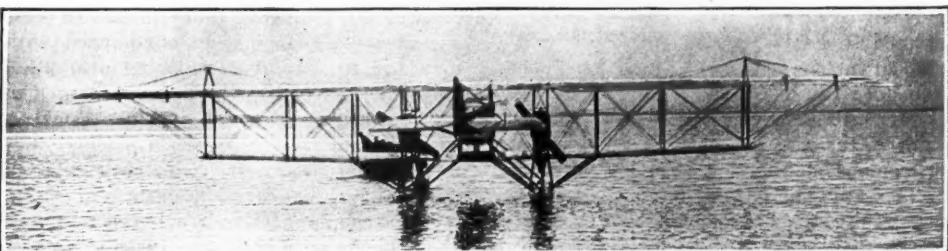
Great Britain is America's most formidable rival in the air race. In the early spring the Handley-Page Company leased for a year a square mile of land at Harbor Grace, Newfoundland, and began its preparations. A hundred men are employed building hangars and preparing landing fields at an ex-

pense of \$50,000. The first British machine designed for the race, a one-motored Sopwith, reached Canada late in March with its two pilots, Harry Hawker and Lieutenant-Commander Mackenzie Grieve.

Another aeroplane entered for the contest, a Fairy biplane will be piloted by Sydney Pickle, an Australian aviator of the Royal Air Force, while a machine built for the race by the Martinsyde Aeroplane Co., will be flown. An aeroplane of the Shortt Brothers will be flown westward from the Irish coast to Newfoundland. The Royal Air Force has announced that it will not compete for the prize, but will make the voyage with one of its great dirigibles as a training for its men. A non-stop flight is planned from Scotland to Newfoundland where a passenger will be set down, when the dirigible will return without landing overseas. A second flight by British dirigible is announced over the southern route from Africa to Florida.

French, Italian, Swedish, and German Interests

The French flag will be carried in the race by a land machine of the Farman Aero-



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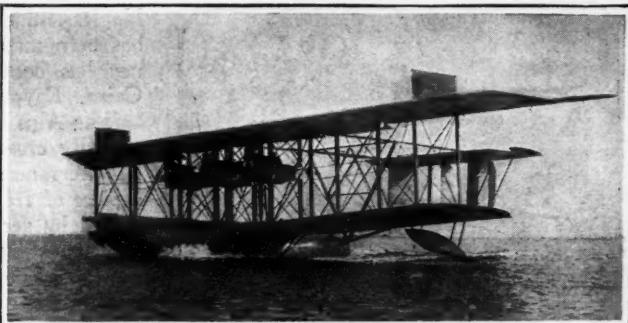
THE AIRPLANE CONSTRUCTED BY THE SWEDISH AVIATOR, CAPTAIN SUNSTEDT

(The machine was put together on the New Jersey coast. The upper wing-span is 100 feet. Two six-cylinder Liberty motors furnish 440 horsepower. There are accommodations for four passengers)

bus type, equipped with two motors, developing 800 horsepower. Although the French aeroplane may be mounted on pontoons to support it on the water, it will not be able to rise from the surface. A great Caproni machine, designed for ocean flying, is building in Italy which is reported to have engines with a horsepower of 5000, with cabins housing 100 passengers. Italy will not attempt an early flight, but is building with confidence for the future of transatlantic air travel. An American-built machine with two engines, christened the *Sunrise*, piloted by Captain Sunstedt, will enter the contest under the Swedish flag. A formidable German Siemens-Schuckert biplane with a wing span of 165 feet has been built for the contest, and is reported to have had a preliminary trial at Doberitz. It is driven by four propellers operated by six engines developing 1800 horsepower. A great German dirigible may also enter the race. With such a craft, the Germans may face the winds of the Atlantic air lanes with more confidence than they face their American reception.

Claims of the Flying Boat

There are two general plans for flying the Atlantic: one by employing the flying boat, the other, a land machine. There is no lack of volunteers willing to venture out in light machines, each with a single motor, counting upon the greater speed of such a craft. The flying boat, on the other hand, with its



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THE NAVY AIRPLANE CAN REST UPON OR TRAVEL UPON THE WATER

multiple engines, is much heavier, but may be kept aloft as long as any of its motors are running, and if forced down, can rise from the sea. Even in case of accident to the wings, such a craft can make good progress in comparatively rough water as a motor boat. From these experiments, perhaps at the price of several machines and human lives, the form of the successful transatlantic flyer will be evolved. The cash prizes awaiting the successful pilot, comprise the *London Mail's* prize of \$50,000 and other sums totalling \$125,000.

Departure from Newfoundland

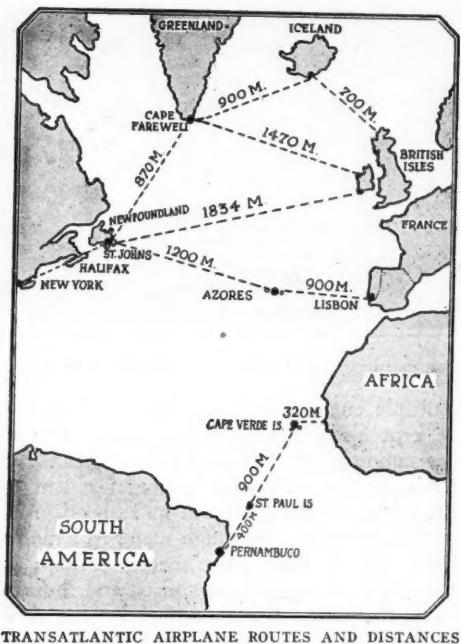
Since the race is to be flown from west to east America enjoys a valuable natural handicap. The air currents over this course, at the 2000-foot altitude chosen for flying, favor the eastward flight. The tableland near St. John's, Newfoundland, being the eastern extremity of the continent, has therefore been chosen both by the United States and England as the point of departure. From this point, measured as the crow or the aeroplane flies, the distance to the nearest part of the Irish coast is 1834 miles. The actual oversea flight may be shortened by using Cape Farewell, Greenland, as a stepping-stone. The nearest point of the Greenland coast lies 870 miles from St. John's, and Scotland is then but 1470 miles distant. By calling at Iceland the distance is further divided into flights of 870, 900, and 700 miles, but at no season of the year are these northern flights attractive to pilots.



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A GREAT FRENCH AIRPLANE USED IN LONG DISTANCE FLIGHTS

(The French route for transatlantic flight is by way of Africa, Cape Verde Islands, St. Paul Islands, to the coast of Brazil—see map on the following page)



TRANSATLANTIC AIRPLANE ROUTES AND DISTANCES

Southern Routes

The comparative nearness of the Azores with their summer seas determines the southern air route. A flight overseas from St. John's of 1200 miles brings the aircraft to these islands, while Lisbon lies but 900 miles further eastward. The South Atlantic is more easily spanned, however, by sailing from Cape Verde at the western extremity of Africa, and calling at the Cape Verde Islands 400 miles off the coast, when a straightaway flight of but 900 miles brings the pilot to St. Paul's Rocks, a group of islands off the coast of South America. A flight of 400 miles separates the islands from Pernambuco. With the ultimate development of aircraft no-stop flights will doubtless be possible, and the air lanes will disregard these stepping-stones.

Recent Notable Air Feats

The enthusiasm of aviators for the future seems justified by the recent achievements in the air. An aeroplane has carried five passengers from London to Constantinople, and thence to Salonica, covering more than 2000 miles. The flight from Turin to

Naples and return, a distance of 920 miles, has been made without alighting. A journey has been made by air from Paris to Cairo, Egypt, by way of Constantinople.

The Alps and the Pyrenees have been repeatedly crossed by aeroplanes, as have the Mediterranean and Adriatic Seas. So bulky a piece of freight as a piano has been transported by aeroplane from London to Paris, demonstrating the aircraft commercial possibilities. Passenger transportation is already a reality.

Daily Passenger Schedules

An aeroplane has flown across the United States in fifty-two hours. An Italian machine has carried aloft seventy-eight, and an American flying boat fifty-one passengers. Daily flights are made between London and Paris, when a score of passengers seated in upholstered cabins, decorated with gilded mirrors and lighted with electric candles, are carried 250 miles on a two-and-a-half-hour schedule. The fare is one shilling a mile! In Germany a daily passenger service is maintained between Berlin and Munich—a distance of 350 miles.

A flight was made the other day from Washington to New York in eighty minutes, reducing the time of the best express train to about one-fourth. The average speed throughout the flight was 162 miles an hour, and even this record has been increased five miles an hour in the Middle West. At this rate Chicago is brought to within five hours of New York and San Francisco less than twenty. A revolution in transportation, comparable to that which came with the railroad after the stage coach, seems assured for the near future. The advantages of a passenger-carrying craft which thus overlaps all natural obstacles at such a pace, assure



THE FARMAN AEROBUS, MAKING REGULAR TRIPS BETWEEN LONDON AND PARIS, CARRYING PASSENGERS

(The machine makes the 250-mile voyage in two and a half hours)

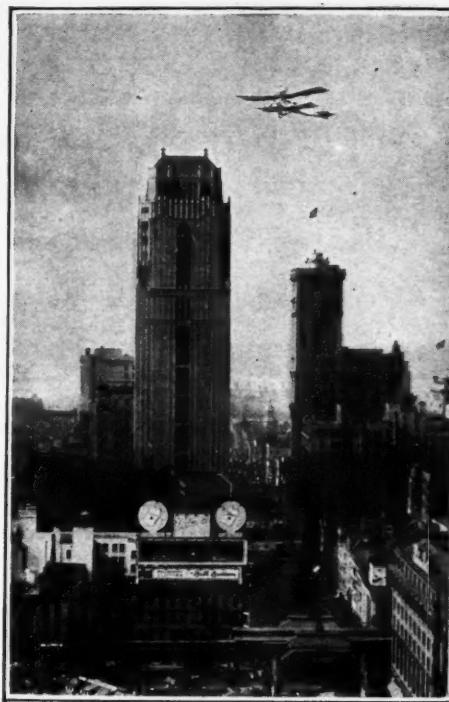
its acceptance. An American express company has recently offered to fill all active aircraft with express matter, leaving the rates to be adjusted. The change from a war to a peace basis in aeronautics, is a question merely of readjustment.

Aeroplanes as Mail-Carriers

The first commercial service of the aeroplane to be arranged to schedule was naturally in mail-carrying. The mails are so concentrated a form of freight, and the time element is so vital in their transmission, that the aeroplane seems especially adapted to this service. For several years isolated attempts were made to establish air service, but the aeroplanes were not yet sufficiently dependable. The New York-Washington service, which has now been in uninterrupted operation for ten months, has gained public confidence. In good weather and bad, summer and winter, the mail aeroplanes weave back and forth with the certainty of a railroad schedule. In the first six months 68,892 miles were flown, and the time for carrying the mails advanced from twelve to six hours.

The flying records established in this service are unequalled in the history of aviation. In 100 consecutive flights there were but seven forced landings, and only twice did the machines fail because of weather conditions. A letter posted in Washington as late as 10.50 is delivered in New York by four o'clock. In half a year 7452 pounds of mail was carried between the two cities at a cost of \$75,165 allowing for depreciation and interest, while the revenue was \$60,653—certainly a most reassuring record.

The next extension of the aeroplane mail



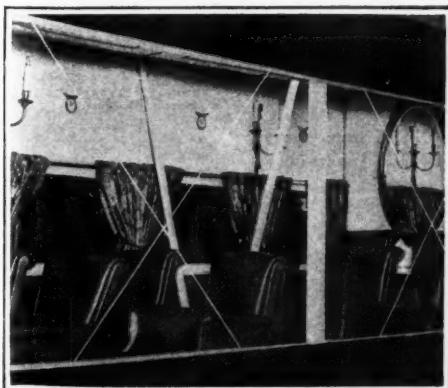
From the Manufacturers Aircraft Association

THE AIRPLANE MAIL OVER NEW YORK

(Making daily flights between New York and Washington via Philadelphia)

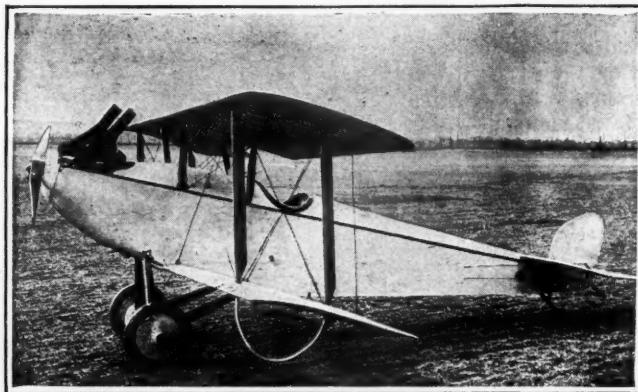
service will probably be from New York to Chicago. Letters will then be posted at six in the morning in either city and delivered before three in the afternoon. The air mail time across the continent over the Woodrow Wilson Airway will probably be less than forty hours, while secondary routes will extend to large cities north and south. Plans have also been completed for a line from Boston to Atlanta. From the experience of the Washington-New York line it is assured that such routes will make no greater claim upon Government mail subsidies than the average land routes.

The economy of time is especially remarkable in remote regions, notably in Alaska, and in connecting the mainland with islands off the coasts. There are seven mail routes in Alaska, for instance, from 200 to 300 miles in length, where as much as 1000 pounds of mail matter is carried twice weekly by dog sleds. In some cases 100 hours is required to cover a mail route, over which the aeroplane could travel in almost as many minutes, and maintain a more regular service. Many Alaskan problems will doubtless



LUXURY OF MODERN TRAVEL BY AIRPLANE

(This is a side window in the fuselage, or body, of a modern Handley-Page machine)



A PLANE SUITABLE FOR PLEASURE TRIPS, HUNTING, TRAVEL, OR A HUNDRED USEFUL OCCUPATIONS

be solved by the commercial aeroplane. It is proposed to establish air services between New Bedford and Nantucket, Massachusetts. The distance, 52 miles by air route, which now requires from five to six hours, will be reduced by aero post to about forty minutes. In Europe more than thirty regular mail aeroplane routes are being operated in ten different countries.

The Sportsman's Interest

Flying craft of every form makes an especial appeal to the sportsman. The "speed mania" which has been so important a factor in training horses or building yachts or automobiles will have its influence upon the development of aircraft. A special type of aeroplane will be developed in which every superfluous part will be sacrificed to speed. An international air race across the United States has been definitely planned and prizes offered to be continued annually as a great national aerial derby. Such contests will keep alive the element of novelty in flying, and stimulate by healthful rivalry, the construction of better machines as well as the skill of pilot. The wealthy sportsman already demands an aeroplane of special design. The recent aero show at New York exhibited a number of craft built for such patronage.

The pleasure flight has become a popular attraction. A single company flying its planes at Atlantic City and at Florida resorts last year carried in all 4000 passengers without a single accident. The popularity of those flights and the fearlessness of the passengers promised well for the future. A variety of aircraft are thus employed. The flying boats, for instance, carried fishing

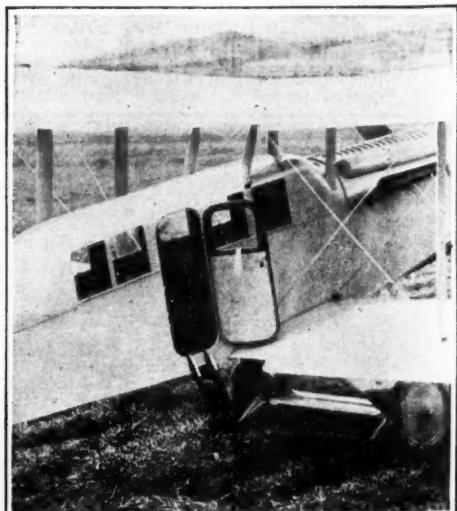
parties far out to sea while many enjoyed the novel sensation of shooting birds upon the wing from a craft which could overtake them in their flight.

Wide Range of Usefulness

Almost daily new and unexpected uses are being discovered for flying craft. The New York police force has established an aviation squad and other cities will doubtless soon follow. The Government is planning to use aeroplanes in connection with the life-saving stations

along the coasts. It has been shown during the war how invaluable is aircraft for scouting. An aircraft which could do a hundred miles an hour or better would bring relief to many otherwise hopeless wrecks. Aeroplanes are employed to herd sheep or cattle.

The forest patrols can cover immense areas by aeroplane on their lookout for forest fires. The State Constabulary in remote sections where long beats must be patrolled find the aeroplane invaluable, enabling one man to do the work of twenty. The list might be lengthened indefinitely. The perfection of the wireless telephone renders all such patrol work vastly more effective. The air pilot thus equipped can talk readily over a range of 250 miles. The



A LIMOUSINE BODY FOR SHELTERING THE AVIATOR AND HIS PASSENGERS

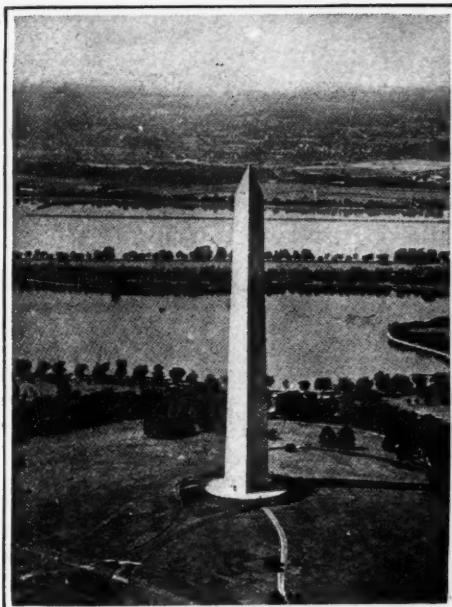
aerial police, for instance, who observes an illicit still below him, or the forest scout who sees the smoke of a fire, can communicate with his headquarters instantaneously.

The Airman as Map-Maker

The observation work of aircraft during the war and the detailed mapping of enemy positions worked a revolution in warfare. Aero photography has been so perfected that a camera operated automatically beneath an aeroplane will take thousands of photographs, completely reproducing a section of land in a few minutes' flight. These photographs are assembled in a "mosaic map" which reproduces every detail of the country. The aero map is invaluable in peace as well as war. An aeroplane flying a hundred, perhaps a hundred and fifty miles an hour, does the work of a surveyor and his chain dragged laboriously over the same territory. Is it realized that only one-seventh of the earth's surface has been scientifically mapped? There are 30,000,000 square miles of little known territory and 8,000,000 square miles wholly unsurveyed.

Progress of the Dirigible

In watching the amazing progress of the aeroplane the public has lost sight of the development, scarcely less significant, of the air ship. Even before the war passenger



WASHINGTON MONUMENT FROM ABOVE
(Illustrating also the use of aircraft in map-making and commercial photography)

Zeppelins flew on regular schedule each carrying a score of tourists. Course dinners were served aloft, and the passengers enjoyed the luxuries of a Pullman car, with the absence, of course, of the smoking room. One of these ships made 224 trips about Berlin in two years, remaining aloft in all for upwards of 10,000 hours, carrying 2286 passengers and covering 15,000 miles.

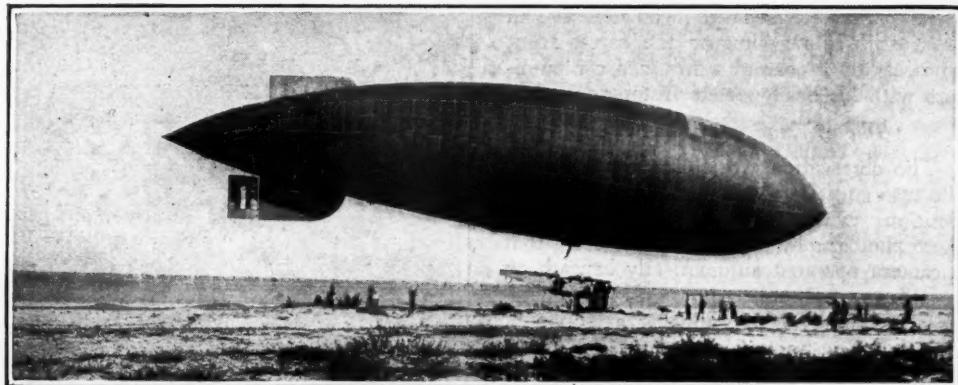
During the later stages of the war the dirigible was largely discredited because of the greater speed and cheapness of the aeroplane, but the growth of the balloon within its limitations is full of promise. The present speed of the air ship of 77.6 miles an hour is only relatively slower than the aeroplane, while its flying radius has increased to nearly 10,000 miles. It is capable of remaining aloft for eight days, and of rising to an altitude of 23,000 feet, or more than four miles. During the war dirigibles of the warring countries flew more than 2,500,000 miles.

Airships are being built in England to-day 800 feet in length and the 1000-foot ships seem assured. Such craft have a lifting force of upwards of 100 tons, and of this 58 per cent. is available for merchandise or passengers. There is no question in the minds of aviators to-day that the dirigible balloon can cross the Atlantic in fifty hours with little danger of serious accident. Sev-



© G. V. Buck, Washington

A NON-RIGID ARMY DIRIGIBLE OVER THE DOME OF THE CAPITOL IN WASHINGTON



AN AMERICAN DIRIGIBLE AIRSHIP ON OBSERVATION DUTY AT ROCKAWAY BEACH, OUTSIDE THE ENTRANCE TO NEW YORK HARBOR

eral large airships are now building for a regular transatlantic service. There seems to be no limit to the size and speed of these craft. The largest of them carry cabins 400 feet in length, which will afford all the comforts of modern travel, and the use of helium may even introduce the smoking room.

Air Travel Not Relatively Hazardous

There is a very general misapprehension as to the dangers of air travel. The frequent accidents of the early days of flying and the hazards of the war are still fresh in the public mind. The actual figures, which come as a surprise to the layman, are very reassuring. After the United States entered the war 8600 flyers were trained at home. The students made flights totalling 880,000 hours spent in the air, covering 66,000,000 miles. The official reports show that there was but one death through accident for every 3200 hours spent in the air or for every 240,000 miles flown, and even these accidents were among beginners, while the licensed pilot enjoyed an even greater degree of safety. The motorist who drives one hour a day for 3200 days, or nearly ten years, covering 240,000 miles, probably faces as great a danger.

What Is Demanded in Commercial Aircraft?

Throughout the war the aeroplane remained exclusively a fighting machine, its form being determined by stern necessity. The commercial aeroplane, suited for entirely different conditions, is now rapidly taking shape, both here and abroad. The recent Government specifications for mail-carrying aeroplanes are significant, indicating as they do the requirements of commercial craft. The new peace aeroplanes are designed

to carry three men or more, while their freight capacity ranges from 1500 to 5000 pounds. All such machines must be bi-motored, that is, equipped with at least two motors to assure continuous flight in case of engine troubles. In these aircraft the mechanician must have access to the engines, so that minor repairs may be made in the air without coming to earth. The landing speed of such craft is about thirty miles an hour, which assures increased safety. The speed of all such craft must be from 90 to 100 miles an hour with a possible 110 if required.

In the commercial craft again the comfort of the pilots and passengers is carefully considered, in striking contrast to the discomforts of the war pilot. The seats of the



THE SAFETY OF MODERN AIRPLANE TRAVEL

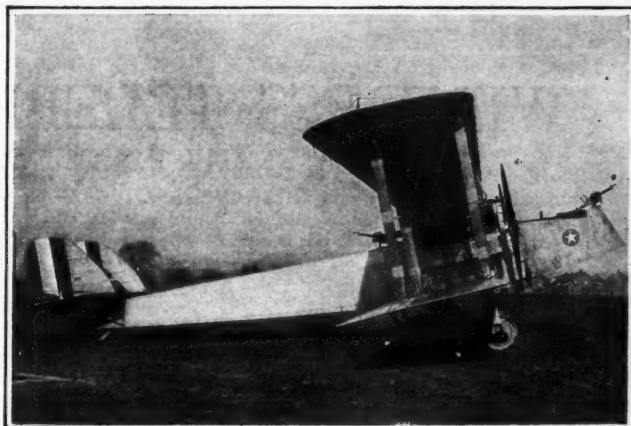
(A few years ago an aviator's passenger was forbidden to move or even to talk. Recently both American and British have demonstrated the practicability of walking all over planes while in flight, and an American lieutenant actually transferred himself, by means of a rope, from one machine to another thousands of feet in the air. The photograph was taken from another machine)

pilots and passengers are often enclosed with sheets of isinglass, offering the protection of a limousine body. Complete suites are now available electrically heated to assure a comfortable temperature for the passenger at all altitudes. The aeroplane of tomorrow will carry wireless-telephone equipment which serves to keep the air traveler in instant communication with the earth.

Aircraft Production

The great war plants built to supply fighting craft were convenient to the Atlantic ports, but the industry in future will be widely distributed. The demands for aircraft in the East will probably make permanent the great plants already established. The Pacific Coast, however, because of its convenience to the spruce supply, so vital in aircraft manufacture, will doubtless develop great industrial plants. The variety of accessories demanded by the new industry is surprisingly large and varied and their development may equal those which have sprung up about the automobile.

The opening of the world war found aviation largely in its experimental stage.



From the "Aircraft Year Book"

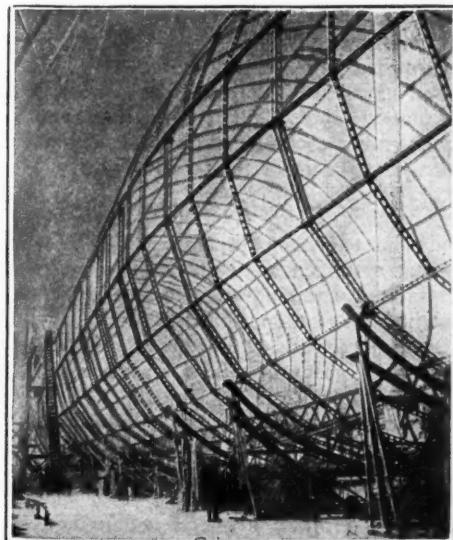
THE FAMOUS MARTIN BOMBER

(Capable of carrying heavy loads and making long flights)

In the five years which followed, the embattled nations spent \$10,000,000,000 on aeronautics. No expense was spared, no price of human life or labor was considered too high to purchase a valuable improvement. Under this amazing stimulus, unprecedented in all history, the development of a single year equalled that of a decade under peace conditions. To the war, therefore, the world may be said to owe half a century's advance.

To-day the situation is highly complicated. The war production outdistanced the natural demand of peace times. The great factories quickly assembled for quantitative production, and the armies of hundreds of thousands of skilled employees, were distinctly a war product. With time, perhaps a very brief interval, the natural growth of aeronautics throughout the world will again demand the output of these plants and their workers.

In the United States an intelligent effort is being exerted to educate the public by aeronautical exhibitions to the possibilities of commercial aeronautics. The recent national aero exhibition in New York was a revelation to the layman. During the entire month of May an open air exhibition will be held at Atlantic City where a variety of contests will be held. Movements are afoot to establish municipal landing places for cities large and small, and to inaugurate passenger-carrying schedules, at first perhaps under some form of private subsidy. Upon America's readiness to welcome the new order and prepare for it will depend largely our future in the air.



ALUMINUM FRAMEWORK OF THE NEW BRITISH DIRIGIBLES

WIRELESS TELEPHONING

BY FRANK B. JEWETT

[Dr. Jewett is Chief Engineer of the Western Electric Company. He served during the war as a Lieutenant-Colonel in the Signal Corps, and was last month awarded the Distinguished Service Medal "for exceptionally meritorious and conspicuous service in connection with the development of the Radio Telephone and the development and production of other technical apparatus for the Army."—THE EDITOR]

THE great public interest recently aroused by the various announcements that have been made of radio telephone experiments have, in addition to stimulating the imagination, raised a number of general questions as to the present and prospective state of the art in this field and the place which radio telephony is likely to have in the future communication system of the world. In this article will be given a short explanation of the method of operation of wireless, as contrasted with the familiar wire telephony, and an effort will be made to predict what bearing its development may have upon the approach toward the engineer's goal of absolutely universal service.

There is an undoubted fascination in the thought that some time any person, anywhere, may communicate instantly and intimately by speech with another, whether he is in the air, under the water, or in the desert, and it is hard to imagine any single factor of more importance in the unification of men and of nations. But realizing the immense value of such an achievement is not sufficient; it is still necessary to count the cost and weigh the physical possibilities before a rational basis for prediction can be reached. In the following pages the main features of this analysis are discussed with the idea of making the whole situation clearer to the interested, but non-technical, reader.

In order to transmit intelligence between two points it is first necessary to have a connecting link between them. It is then necessary to transmit along this link changes which may be translated into symbols of ideas. In ordinary conversation the link is the air and the changes are changes of pressure which affect the ear. The distance over which a conversation may be carried on is limited by the effort required to fill the surrounding air with sounds and also by the amount of undesirable or interfering noises or other and simultaneous conversations. It was early realized that both the effort re-

quired to send sound in all directions (rather than in one) and the disturbance due to foreign noises could be decreased by allowing only a small tube of air, extending directly from speaker to listener, to be agitated. The result was the speaking tube, which, for communicating over moderately great distances, is a distinct advance over *broadcast* speaking.

The need for greater distances of transmission was met by the ordinary telephone, in which an electric link is maintained between speaker and listener by means of a wire. The function of this wire is to confine the electrical changes to a narrow channel, and thus not only to avoid loss of energy in undesired directions, but to prevent overlapping of conversations which would result in confusion. The conductors in our familiar system of telephony so well serve their purpose that a million conversations may go on simultaneously within the range of one speaker without the slightest inconvenience to him. Thus by constructing material connections we secure secrecy, direct and selective communication, and a low cost of power for maintaining the connecting link. The one disadvantage of this otherwise ideal system is that we must have a wire, fixed and to some extent accessible for repairs, extending along every foot of the speech highway.

Ether Itself as a Medium

Radio telephony dispenses with the wire, but at a tremendous cost. It is a reversion from the speaking-tube to the broadcast method of communication, which, while simple, direct and cheap, becomes impossible in a large group of talkers, in a noisy room, or if secrecy is desired.

In radio telephony the link between speaker and listener is not a narrow channel, but the same medium which spreads light from a lamp—energy is propagated approximately uniformly in all directions and the whole of the listening world within range is taken into the speaker's confidence.

This light-carrying medium, or ether, whose uses have been extended to include those of connecting human beings for conversation can be disturbed, or varied in its properties, by electric currents. When a strong electric current varies rapidly in a high conductor, or antenna, the ether in its neighborhood varies its states correspondingly and these variations then spread out in all directions at an enormous speed, getting weaker and more attenuated as they extend to greater distances, but still preserving the characteristics impressed upon them at the transmitting antenna. A similar antenna at a distance will have produced in it, by the impinging disturbances, currents similar to, but perhaps a million times smaller than, those used to start the disturbance. Moreover, other receiving antennæ, at an equal distance from the transmitter, will be equally affected.

Modulating Currents

We now have a link, or carrier, for our signals. In the early days of radio telegraphy there was found a device for translating the currents in the receiving antenna into displacements of a telephone diaphragm in such a way that twice the sending current, for example, would produce twice the displacement in the telephone. In order then to telephone by means of this carrier it is only necessary to make the strength of the rapidly varying current in the sending antenna vary in the same way as does the air pressure in front of the speaker's mouth—the telephone diaphragm at the receiving station will then move correspondingly and will reproduce speech.

Now in wire telephony this *modulating* of an electric current, in accordance with speech, is not difficult because the current at the sending end is not very much larger than that small current required at the receiving end to operate the telephone receiver. It therefore does not represent a great amount of energy and the familiar carbon microphone type of transmitter is sufficient. But in radio telephony the power required at the sending end may be millions of times larger and cannot be controlled directly in this way.

Here was a difficulty which, for practical purposes, remained unsurmounted until a few years ago when there was found and developed a device, called the audion, for magnifying and faithfully reproducing the very small currents which may be modulated by a telephone transmitter. The develop-

ment of this device into an efficient and powerful instrument has undoubtedly made radio telephony practical.

Speaking Across the Atlantic (1915)

The first attempt to use this method of modulating large currents for very long-distance radio telephone communication was made in 1914, the attempt resulting, in the summer of 1915, in successful radio transmission of speech from the Arlington antenna at Washington, D. C., to Paris, Darien, San Francisco and Honolulu. These experiments were carried on by the American Telephone & Telegraph Co. and the Western Electric Company through the courtesy of the United States Navy officers, who extended the use of their radio stations, and of French Government officials through whom was obtained permission to use the Eiffel Tower Station for a short time each day. These experiments were given some publicity at the time (September and October, 1915) and for the first time bridged the Atlantic with speech.

Communication Between Airplanes in Flight

During the next year considerable development work was done and at the time of the entry of this country into the war the Western Electric Company, at least, and probably other investigators also, had made large advances in the art of radio telephony. At this time attention was directed toward the possibility of holding communication by speech with and between airplanes in flight. This work proceeded so rapidly that when, in May, 1917, the Chief Signal Officer of the Army requested the Western Electric Company to attempt the solution of the problem, an experimental airplane telephone set was in operation in their laboratories and was soon after installed on an airplane at Langley Field. During the summer strikingly successful two-way telephone communication was established between planes and from plane to ground and the production of practical sets for this purpose was started. Recently a number of demonstrations of this type of apparatus, usually taking the form of the control of airplane evolutions from the ground, have been reported and, because of their rather spectacular nature, have given rise to very natural enthusiasm and bursts of prophecy in the newspapers. Other even more useful, if less spectacular fields of application of radio telephony in war have been naval, for example in the equipment of the submarine-chaser fleets with direct telephone

facilities for intercommunicating between vessels by speech.

Will Public Use Exhaust the Ether

These uses of radio telephony, and the established use of radio telegraphy and other forms of transmission through the ether, such as in direction finding and location of ships and airplanes, warnings, news broadcasting, time and weather signals, etc., will perhaps suggest to the reader, in view of the universal nature of ether transmission already explained, that government and international demands upon the ether may exhaust its possibilities, leaving no ranges for private use. This condition may indeed become less serious in the near future because of recent work leading to a more economical use of the ether, but congestion is certain to occur as the traffic increases. This is due primarily to the fact that the only practical way known at present for selecting a given station and avoiding interference with other stations is by *tuning* the two stations together, exactly as two tuning forks are made responsive to one another by properly proportioning them to have the same rate of vibration. It is obvious that the range of frequencies over which resonant systems of this kind can operate would soon be exhausted, since different pairs must be set at a sufficiently large frequency difference to avoid overlapping.

Susceptible to Interference

We are now in position to form an opinion as to the future of this new art in relation to the older one of wire telephony.

All radio communication consists in sending out from the transmitting station a large amount of energy in the form of electro-magnetic waves and receiving a very small amount of this energy on the wires of the receiving station. That the amount of energy available at the receiving station is but a minute fraction of the energy which starts from the transmitting station can be appreciated when it is realized that the electro-magnetic waves radiate from the transmitting station in all directions and that only that part of the initial energy which can be picked up by the wires of the receiving station is available there. The minuteness of this received energy renders all radio communication very susceptible to interference from natural electrical disturbances and from other radio stations.

In radio telephony the problem is still

further complicated by the fact that the continuous wave train which would serve as the basis for a radio telegraph channel is required to perform the additional task of acting as the carrier for the voice waves. Since all radio communication employs the same common conductor and since freedom from interference between messages is dependent solely upon the ability to use a different range of frequencies for each message, this added condition, which greatly broadens the band of frequencies required for a radio telephone message, as distinguished from a radio telegraph message, very greatly limits the number of non-interfering conversations to be sent or received from a given area.

So limited is the number of non-interfering radio telephone messages from a given area that in the present state of the art from this cause alone it would be possible to handle only a small fraction of the normal telephone business of a city like New York.

Messages Not Secret

More important even than interference from other radio stations are the questions of natural interference and non-secrecy. Because of the fact that all radio communication employs the same medium of transmission it is, of necessity, essentially non-secret and anyone possessed of the requisite apparatus can easily receive the messages from any desired station. This is particularly true of radio telephony, where even that form of secrecy made possible by the use of codes is difficult to obtain. Further, the broad band of frequencies required for speech range makes it easy to tune in the receiving station.

In the matter of natural disturbances, and without attempting to judge of the value of the recent static eliminators which have been announced, it is sufficient to say that the so-called static disturbances have thus far proved the most serious bar to reliability in all radio communication and that great difficulties must be overcome under certain conditions if anything like the continuous service called for in an operating telephone plant is to be obtained.

How Far Can Radio Service Be Extended?

From a physical standpoint the state of the radio telephone art since 1915 has been one in which it was possible under certain conditions and at certain times to telephone between two ordinary telephone instruments located at widely distant points on the earth's surface and to do this either wholly by radio

or by a combination of any number of wires and radio links. Prior to the middle of 1917 this communication would have been limited to telephone stations located either on land or sea. Thanks to the developments of airplane radio, however, it is now possible to include telephone stations located above the earth's surface in the communication area.

While, as stated, it has for some time been possible to hold radio telephone conversations between very distant points, it has not been and is not now possible to give a widely extended and reliable general radio telephone service. As matters stand, what, then, is the probable future of radio telephony and to what extent, if at all, is it likely to supersede wire telephony? At a time when epoch-making developments in physical and electrical science are succeeding one another in rapid succession it is dangerous to prophesy what can and what cannot be accomplished in the future, but it seems clear that, except for developments so radical as to alter completely the scheme of radio communication as we know it to-day, there will probably be a few clearly defined uses for radio telephony.

For certain classes of telephonic communication radio telephony at present offers the sole prospect of realization. These classes are between ships at sea, from ships to shore, to and between airplanes and between points on land which are separated by regions, whether water or land, across which it is impossible or impracticable to erect and maintain telephone circuits. As indicated above, all of these classes of service could probably, if desired, be made a part of the general wire telephone system. All of these fields of utility are subject to the limitations of interference from natural and artificial causes, which were noted above, and for this

reason there is considerable uncertainty as to how reliable the service can be made. Further, some or all of these fields are in the region where military requirements are of the utmost importance and it is not clear as yet how far these requirements will re-act in the direction of limiting the use of radio telephony for purely commercial purposes.

To Supplement Wire Service

In view of all the data now available, a reasonable interpretation of the future of commercial radio telephony would seem to be one in which its use was confined solely to those services where telephonic communication was desired and where such service could not be given by ordinary telephonic means. Certain it is that both natural and governmental limitations will act to restrict the indiscriminate use of radio telephony on a large scale between land stations. Even if there were no military requirements involved the needs of prospective services at sea and in the air are sufficient to utilize all the non-interfering channels now available for radio telephone communication.

The existing fundamental conditions dispose at once of the idea of everybody having his own small radio telephone plant and calling at will anyone with whom he or she might desire to talk.

For radio telephony, as indeed for all forms of radio communication outside the realm of war, there seems to be little doubt that the developments of the future will be in the direction of apparatus and methods to extend and supplement the existing wire service. There is no present indication of any radio developments which will supplant or even curtail the use of wires for telephone and telegraph operation.



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SECRETARY DANIELS, AT WASHINGTON, TALKING WITH PRESIDENT WILSON, IN MID OCEAN, BY WIRELESS TELEPHONE

MENTAL ENGINEERING DURING THE WAR

BY RAYMOND DODGE

[While it is generally known that the chemical and physical laboratories of the universities and colleges rendered the Government a vast and varied service during the War period, it is not so well known that the professors of psychology were also exceedingly active and useful. Among the men who were prominent in the Psychology Committee of the National Research Council, Professor Raymond Dodge, of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., is particularly well qualified to speak of the various activities of the committee. He was a member of the Psychology Committee from its beginning and a chairman of several of its subcommittees; one of the original members of the Committee on the Classification of Personnel in the Army; Psychologist member of the Committee on Industrial Fatigue; Consulting Psychologist of the Chemical Warfare Service, and the Training Section of the Bureau of Navigation; and later commissioned Lieutenant-Commander U. S. N. R. F., assigned to scientific duty. This article by Professor Dodge will give some indication of the range of the work undertaken for war purposes in the field that has been happily characterized as that of "Mental Engineering."—THE EDITOR]

IN an address at the Personnel Officers' School at Camp Meigs less than a year ago, Major-General Hutchinson, C. B. D. S. O., Director of Organization of the British Army, spoke very frankly of the serious mistake of Great Britain in recruiting her skilled labor indiscriminately into fighting units. They made good soldiers, but the plan seriously interfered with the development of technical units and the "output of many vital things."

No one has computed the cost of bringing back those skilled men from the Western Front after they had been trained as soldiers, or of having the vital things made elsewhere that might have been made at home. If it had not been for the great American reservoir of skilled labor it would probably have cost the war. That the United States did not make a similar, and with the exhaustion of the reservoir, a disastrous mistake in the military distribution of our skilled labor is due primarily to the Committee on the Classification of Personnel in the Army.

The work of this committee is commonly regarded as one of the great contributions of civilians to the efficiency of the Army. It is probably the greatest single piece of mental engineering that has ever been attempted in this country. But it is by no means the only task of the war that was successfully met by an application of the principles of the science of human behavior to war conditions.

Mental engineering as an organized war service of American psychologists began at an informal meeting of experimentalists in the spring of 1917. They asked themselves

the universal question, what they could do to help win the war. The answer to that question as it finally evolved, has come to be more than a matter of historic interest, more than a war measure, more than practical applications of a single science. It is a permanent contribution to the organization and utilization of human forces. It inevitably projects itself into the great reconstruction, and supplies at once a prophecy and an obligation. This is the reason that the editor of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* has invited me to tell about it.

Mobilizing Knowledge

The Committee of the American Psychological Association that was formed for military service had no illusions of military wisdom. We were mere students; but we were students of human behavior. We realized better than most of those in the service that, if we were to win in the life-and-death struggle with the most highly organized military nation in the world, we must mobilize for military purposes not only our material resources, our finances, coal, grain, steel, and human bodies, but also each bit of knowledge, experience and skill that was needed by our army.

In order to get a comprehensive view of the scope of the psychologists' plans for war service let me give *seriatim* a list of the various sub-committees and their chairmen:

1. Psychological Literature relating to military affairs. Madison Bentley (University of Illinois).

2. Psychological examination of recruits. Robert M. Yerkes (University of Minnesota).
3. Psychological problems of aviation. Harold E. Burt (Harvard); Geo. M. Stratton (California); E. L. Thorndike (Teachers' College, Columbia).
4. Selection of men for tasks requiring special aptitude. Edward L. Thorndike (Teachers' College, Columbia).
5. Recreation in the Army and Navy. George A. Coe (Union Theological Seminary).
6. Problems of vision that have military significance. Raymond Dodge (Wesleyan University).
7. Pedagogical and psychological problems of military training and discipline. Chas. H. Judd (School of Education), University of Chicago; William C. Bagley (Teachers' College, Columbia).
8. Psychological problems of incapacity. Shepherd Ivory Franz (Government Hospital for the Insane).
9. Problems of emotional characteristic. Robert S. Woodworth (Columbia University).
10. Propaganda behind the German Lines. James R. Angell (University of Chicago).
11. Acoustic problems in relation to military service. Carl E. Seashore (University of Iowa).
12. Tests of deception. John F. Shepard (University of Michigan).
13. Adaptation of instruction in psychology to military educational need. Raymond Dodge (Wesleyan University).
14. Methods of selecting and training observers for the Division of Military Intelligence. John B. Watson (Johns Hopkins University); Madison Bentley (University of Illinois).
15. Problems of the gas mask for the Chemical Warfare Service. Raymond Dodge (Wesleyan); John W. Baird (Clark University); Knight Dunlap (Johns Hopkins).
16. Adaptation of the army intelligence tests for the S. A. T. C. Louis M. Terman (Leland Stanford University).

Classification of Personnel

We have already mentioned the Committee on the Classification of Personnel in the Army. It was organized under Sub-Committee No. 4, with Walter Dill Scott as director and W. V. Bingham as secretary, both of the Carnegie Institute of Technology. It was particularly fortunate in its problems, in its leaders, and in its contacts with broad-minded officers and officials of the War Department. The original task for which it was called was to supply a uniform rating scale for grading students in the Officers' Training Camps. A success from the start, this scale rapidly became the official means of expressing the military fitness of all army officers. But almost immediately the committee discovered the vital need of its broader and vastly more difficult task, namely, the discovery and distribution

of the specially skilled men that a modern army organization needs.

Rounding up Motor-Truck Drivers

Motor-truck drivers, for example, were a vital necessity for the Army Supply Service. The demand greatly exceeded the supply and it was essential that every drafted man who could drive a truck should be found and assigned to duty at the earliest practicable moment. Much the same was true of acetylene gas workers, cooks, divers, electricians, foresters, gunsmiths, horseshoers, interpreters, locomotive engineers, mechanics, pigeon experts, radio operators, stenographers, tinsmiths, wagoners and hundreds of other skilled workers.

The first step in solving this gigantic personnel problem was to devise an indexing system that would classify and locate every man who had any kind of special skill that the Army might need. With the invaluable coöperation of expert employment managers this was accomplished by means of an enormous card catalogue. Each of the four million cards contained all the necessary personnel data for one soldier. On it were entered from personal interview the details of his occupational history, including the names of firms worked for, his wages, and length of service. It stated his education, linguistic ability, previous military experience, personal history, the results of medical, mental, and trade tests; and it provided spaces for recording his successive military assignments.

By a system of colored celluloid flags sticking up above the card at special places, these files showed at a glance who were available in each cantonment for motor-truck drivers as well as for forty-six other kinds of skill that were most in demand. Over 500 other kinds of special occupational skill could be located almost as quickly.

Making Civilian Trades Available in the Army

But this was only the beginning. Horseshoer, in the modern army, does not always mean a shoer of animals. If the unit is a motor unit the "horseshoer" must be able to repair motor trucks. There are about twenty distinct kinds of "electrician." But a "master signalman electrician" in the Army may have nothing at all to do with electricity. In a carrier-pigeon company he is in charge of training pigeons and is responsible for their care and condition, in an aero squadron he must be an airplane mechanic.

These are extreme cases, but military duties practically never exactly duplicate civilian trades. So it became necessary to analyze the various army tasks and to determine the civilian occupations that most directly corresponded. A parallel necessity was to list the exact specifications of each civilian trade that was catalogued, so that personnel officers and requisitioning officers could speak the same language. These trade specifications fill a book of over 230 pages, and cover 565 civilian occupations.

Applying Trade Tests

To the Washington office of the Committee on the Classification of Personnel fell the task of assigning men with special skill to meet the requisitions. It supplied the skilled men that were called for by General Pershing, as well as those needed by the growing army at home. Almost a million men were selected in this way for technical duty.

Early experience showed that a soldier's own estimate of his own skill could not be trusted, even when he had the best intentions. To meet this difficulty the Committee developed a series of trade tests. These consisted of verbal questions; the identification of technical drawings, tools, and jobs; the solution of trade problems; and the construction of objects from working drawings. These tests standardized for the first time in America the classification of novices, apprentices, journeymen, and experts in the most important trades. The scientific care with which these trade tests were prepared may be indicated by the fact that each test before it was adopted passed through a process of development, trial, and evaluation consisting of twelve distinct stages.

The Committee on the Classification of Personnel in the Army was organized by civilians under the Adjutant General. It is understandable that before the war closed the whole organization was taken over by the General Staff and made a permanent part of the Army.

The value of the work of this committee is not confined to war. The scientific placement of personnel is one of the major social and industrial problems. Reliable trade tests are in constant demand by employers, both private and public. It is not impossible that the principles that underlie the table of trade specifications may be of even greater social importance. In a recent address Colonel W. V. Bingham suggested a related educational task. He pointed out the boon it

would be to both teachers and students if there were available for consultation and comparison a careful analysis of just what kind of special skill each trade and profession demanded, and of exactly what each phase of the educational program was expected to develop.

Testing the Intelligence of Recruits

The work of the Committee on the Psychological Examination of Recruits was another of the notable mental engineering achievements of the war. Its original purpose was to help to eliminate from the Army at the earliest possible moment those recruits whose defective intelligence would make them a menace to the military organization. But the military value of an early and reliable estimate of the general intelligence of each recruit proved enormously greater than had been anticipated. Of the total of about two million men who were psychologically examined, 3 per cent. were rated below the mental age of ten years. It is probable that none of these men were worth to the Army what it cost to train them. One-half of 1 per cent. were so defective as to be recommended for discharge. Three-fifths of 1 per cent. were recommended for development battalions and about the same number for limited service in tasks that required a minimum of mental activity.

But in the enormous task of building up an efficient army organization it proved important to discover at the earliest opportunity those recruits who could learn the new duties that were required of them as soldiers in the shortest time. To train the quick learners and the slow learners together in the same companies was an intolerably wasteful process. Moreover, the army needed an enormous number of men with superior intelligence for officers. While high general intelligence did not guarantee good officer material it was a conspicuous fact that good officers regularly ranked high in the intelligence tests. In the selection of men for officer training camps mental tests were obviously preferable to the importance of influential friends. They proved greatly superior to personal impressions.

Necessity of a Scientific Basis

For a variety of reasons mental testing has aroused an unusually widespread popular interest. It was initiated and first developed in France as a scientific instrument for educators. It has become an important

adjunct to the juvenile court, and bids fair to become a valuable instrument for social research, and a practicable device for solving a considerable number of perplexing educational and industrial problems.

For example, the various trades represented in the draft made rather insistent demands not only on physical strength and endurance but also on that ability to meet new and complex situations which we call general intelligence. We commonly deplore spoiling a first-class mechanic to make a poor executive. Apparently the scientific measurement of general intelligence will go a long way in estimating whether a person has the general intelligence that is required for average success in any given trade or profession.

But it is easily possible to expect too much of mental tests. Prophecy of the future is vastly more difficult than a record of actual developments even in such relatively simple matters as the weather. The only final indicator of the inability of a person to succeed in a profession is failure; and even a failure may be the one factor in the complex conditions of the mental life that is necessary for success. In view of the suddenly developed popular interest in mental tests, it is necessary to point out that no so-called mental test is of the least scientific value unless it rests on a scientific analysis of the process to be tested, and unless it has been thoroughly systematized and statistically evaluated. The preparation of the army tests of general intelligence was a notable technical achievement of far-reaching importance.

Other Tasks of Mental Engineering

We have sketched in some detail the two most important contributions of psychology to the military organization; but if neither of these great services had been realized the other war activities of the Psychology Committee of the National Research Council would have been properly regarded as a substantial military service. We have space only to enumerate a partial list of the other mental engineering tasks that were accepted and satisfactorily consummated by American psychologists in military service.

They coöperated with the Air Service by studying the effect of oxygen-lack on the mental processes, and by devising test indicators of the ability to resist the effects of high altitudes; by studying the conditions of effective aerial observation, and by elaborating test indications of good observers; by study-

ing the coöordinations of aerial combat and by devising an adequate test and training instrument; by analyzing the general conditions of efficient flying, and developing presumptive indications of the ability to become a satisfactory flier with normal training.

They coöperated with the Army morale service in devising and carrying out under General Munson a program that was wonderfully successful in putting recruits into harmony with their training-camp environment. This program also helped to raise the morale of the civil population.

They coöperated with the Chemical Warfare Service by a systematic investigation of the sources of discomfort in wearing gas masks, and by suggestions for eliminating them; by discovering the application of the law of adaptation to the wearing of gas masks, and by suggestions for the development of maximum tolerance in minimum time; by comparing the relative tenability of various types of masks.

They coöperated and are still coöoperating with the various rehabilitation agencies by a study of the processes of re-education; by developing methods for re-educating lost neuromuscular coöordinations, and the will to succeed; by active participation in the laborious and exacting re-education program.

They coöperated with the Navy by analyzing the mental factors that were involved in a considerable number of naval tasks; and by devising tests for the selection of recruits who could be trained for the several tasks in minimum time; as well as by devising a number of useful training instruments. The most productive analyses were those of gun-pointing, fire-control plotting, anti-submarine listening, and the lookout service.

Selecting Gun-Pointers

Let me illustrate this kind of war work by a single concrete instance in which the details are not military secrets. The first problem that was referred to the sub-committee on vision was the question whether we had any way of selecting those Naval recruits who could be trained most quickly as gun-pointers for the armed merchant ships.

The first step was to learn exactly what a gun-pointer had to do. The next was to reduce the more or less complicated processes of gun-pointing to their simplest neuro-muscular terms. It was a definite problem for analysis; and, because of the perfect systematization and high specialization of Naval tasks it was relatively simple. The third

step was to adapt approved scientific techniques to the study of this particular complex of neuro-muscular processes. For this purpose an instrument was devised that would show all the following facts on a single record line: 1, the time that it took a sailor to start his gun-pointing reaction after the target at which he was aiming started to move; 2, the accuracy with which he was able to "keep on" the moving target; 3, the time that it took him to respond to a change in the direction of motion of the target; 4, the ability to press the firing key when he was on; 5, the effect of firing on his pointing.

All these data were so simplified that they could be accurately estimated from simple measurements of a single line without elaborate computations. A succession of records indicated the probable quickness with which the sailor would learn the new coöordinations. The final step was to test the probable military value of our instrument and its records by performances of expert and inexpert gun-pointers.

The first trials proved the usefulness of the device. It clearly differentiated between the qualified gun-pointers, the partially trained, and the untrained. It picked a number of promising novices and indicated the faults of some who were slow to improve. Predictions based on the records were uniformly corroborated by subsequent experience. Somewhat later it was possible to construct a robust training instrument along similar lines that was rather enthusiastically reported on by various Naval officers, and was widely reproduced by the Navy for use in the Naval Training Stations.

At a time when every available gun was needed for service afloat, the utility of our relatively simple and inexpensive training instrument that closely reproduced the coöordinations of actual service needs no emphasis.

Value of Group Coöperation

The list of incompletely completed services that were cut short of full fruition by the signing of the armistice would be too long to even mention here, though it would include some of the more difficult and important enterprises of psychological service.

The most important facts that appeared in the war work of the psychologists were, first, the value of the applications of the principles of psychology to concrete military problems; and, second, the importance of coöperation in practical scientific service. To

the military tasks the psychologists brought their appreciation of the distinctly human and mental aspects of the problems that were involved, their training in the technic of mental analysis, their laboratory methods for estimating human reactions, and their ingenuity in developing new instruments for special purposes.

But in no case was the necessary skill and practical experience in the possession of any one person. The best work of the psychologists was the product of group coöperation for which the far-sighted guidance of the chairman, Major R. M. Yerkes and his colleagues of the National Research Council was an important condition. Success in our undertakings would have been impossible without the will to coöperate with each other, with representatives of the other sciences, with employment managers, industrial and educational experts, as well as with officers of the Army and Navy. While it was not always easy to convince responsible persons that we could help, when they were once convinced the only limit to our service was the limit of human endurance. At the end of the war, avenues were opening for genuine coöperation in scientific matters between the various scientific bodies of the Allies.

At the conclusion of our war work two real dangers confront us, one military and the other social. The military danger is that with the passing of the military crisis we shall stop our study of the mental factors in war. If some other country with more permanent policies should take up the mental analyses where we have left them, and develop a real military psychology, they would have a military instrument vastly more effective than 42-cm. guns.

But even if the efforts of our statesmen are successful and war is forever abolished, the relative importance of psychological offensives will not be diminished. On the contrary, when mental weapons become the only legitimate means for securing national ends they will become increasingly more important. Whether the reconstruction is military or non-military, the need of coöperative studies of vital mental problems and of coöperative efforts at scientific mental engineering will certainly not be less important for society than the scientific and engineering problems that concern material things. In view of these future needs, our war-time activities, however interesting, and however successful they may have been, seem relatively trivial and insignificant.



IN THE HEART OF A BROWN PELICAN COLONY—SHOWING ADULTS AND YOUNG (PASS A'LUTRE, LOUISIANA)

THE CASE OF THE BROWN PELICAN

BY T. GILBERT PEARSON

(Secretary, National Association of Audubon Societies)

THOSE whose interest it is to watch closely State and federal legislation affecting the fortunes of our wild bird life are quite familiar with the sudden outbursts which every now and then take place against some bird hitherto unsuspected of any special wrong doing. Usually relief is sought at the hands of the legislative bodies, and these assemblies are asked to remove the iniquitous laws that unwisely protect the feathered pests.

Thus arose the momentous fight in New Jersey to take protection from the robin, because it was supposed to be destroying the cherry crop. Not long ago it was declared that in Arkansas and Texas wild ducks were creating vast ruin in the rice fields and the offending wild fowl should therefore be destroyed. Two years ago a great cry arose in Arizona that the gentle mourning dove was eating all the alfalfa, and about the same time the California legislature was thrown into turmoil by the efforts of certain well-meaning members who wanted to remove protective laws from the meadow lark on the absurd charge that these birds were eating grapes.

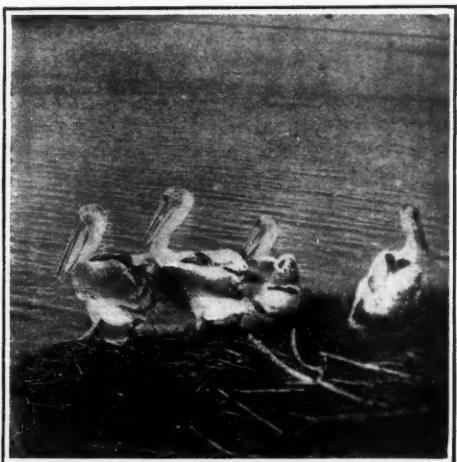
The Audubon Societies or their friends are able usually to produce sufficient evidence in the bird's behalf to save it from legislative condemnation. Now and then some such measure becomes a law, however, and much mischief is wrought before its repeal can be secured. For example, on April

30, 1917, the legislature of Alaska declared a bounty of fifty cents on the head, or in reality the feet, of every American eagle killed within its boundaries and in the nineteen months following the territory actually paid for the killing of 5100 of these emblems of our national independence.

CHARGED WITH THE DESTRUCTION OF FOOD FISH

A year ago one of the most vicious attacks ever made against the reputation of a supposed well-behaved bird broke out at various points along the Gulf Coast of the United States. The object against which the vials of wrath were so furiously poured out was the brown pelican. It was declared by some high officials of Texas, and echoed in the press, that these birds were found along the coast in countless thousands and "every day they consume more food fish than the people of Texas get in a year." The fish catch in Texas has fallen off much in the past three seasons, and the pelican was charged with being responsible for the shortage.

It was alleged that the pelican population of Florida (estimated at one million) destroyed \$950,000 worth of food fish every day. Certain Florida papers took up the fight and denounced the Government for having created bird reservations along the coast where pelicans could breed in safety. So much excitement was developed in that State that on the night of May 10, 1918,



YOUNG BROWN PELICANS ABOUT TO TAKE A PLUNGE

some man landed on Pelican Island, a government bird reservation in Indian River, and clubbed to death 400 young pelicans in their nests.

THE GOVERNMENT INVESTIGATES

Florida's supposed grievance was laid before the Federal Food Administration at Washington. Other protests poured into the capitol, all to the same effect, that if we were going to have enough food in this country to win the war these birds must be exterminated. "Kill the pelican or the Kaiser will get you," was the battle cry of these campaigners.

There came a time when the gentlemen of the Food Administration felt that they must give some attention to these ever-increasing complaints, but before issuing an edict that the pelican must die it was decided to investigate the correctness of the reports. The writer was thereupon asked to visit the Gulf Coast and after personal study report on these three points: First, how many brown pelicans were living along the coast; second, determine the character of their food; and third, recommend to the Federal Food Administration what should be done.

The State authorities having to do with conservation matters in Texas, Louisiana, and Florida, generously agreed in each case to supply a vessel, crew and provisions for cruising its waters. June was selected for this work because then the pelicans would be assembled on their several breeding islands. Certain precautionary measures were taken to insure unquestioned accept-

ance of the report when made. Each pelican colony was visited with an official representative of the State in whose waters the colony was situated, and all counts and estimates of birds were made with the coöperation of these agents.

Pelicans both old and young readily regurgitate their food when alarmed by the approach of an intruder. This food was in all cases collected in the presence of, and often with the help of, these state officers. While they looked on, the pelican food thus taken was placed in tanks of formalin and shipped for identification to the United States Bureau of Fisheries at Washington.

NUMBERS OF BIRDS HAD BEEN EXAGGERATED

As these birds usually make their rude nests on the ground on barren islands it was easy to determine closely the numbers of breeding birds by counting their nests. In all cases 30 per cent. was added to this count to cover the non-breeding birds, viz., the young of the year before, old bachelors, and unmated females. Here is what was found as to numbers: Of the seventeen islands on the Texas coast said to contain colonies of pelicans, we were able to visit all but one. A group was found breeding on only one of these and here we found eighteen eggs and thirty-two young. In a cruise of about eighty miles north from Rockford, through the heart of the pelican country, not over one hundred pelicans were seen. However, to be generous, we credited Texas with 5000 birds, and went elsewhere. Every foot of the Louisiana coast was cruised



A BROWN PELICAN NEST ON BIRD ISLAND, SAN ANTONIO BAY, TEXAS



A COMPANY OF YOUNG BROWN PELICANS GATHERED AS IF FOR MUTUAL PROTECTION

and the colonies all visited. Fifty thousand we recorded for that State.

On the west coast of Florida the birds build their nests in the low mangrove bushes of small keys, but it was not difficult even here to arrive at an estimate of their numbers, on which my host, the Shell Fish Commissioner, and I could readily agree. We found in this territory about 8000 pelicans, instead of the reported one million. In Mississippi and Alabama pelicans do not breed, but a few are always found feeding about the larger bays and harbors. It is the writer's opinion that in June, 1918, the brown pelican population along that fourteen-hundred mile strip of coast from Mexico to Key West did not exceed 65,000 adult birds.

LIVE ON FISH NOT USED FOR HUMAN FOOD

Regarding the food of the pelican at this season Dr. Hugh M. Smith, Chief of the United States Fish Commission, reported that every specimen sent him that was collected between Rockford, Texas, and Tampa, Florida, was the Gulf menhaden, a fish never used for human consumption. Neither the writer nor the State's representatives with

me could find one single food fish. In south Florida menhaden were not so plentiful as farther west and this may account for the fact that the fish collected were of seven varieties, viz., common mullet, pigfish, Gulf menhaden, pinfish, thread herring, top minnow, and crevalle.

Of the 3428 specimens taken in Florida waters only twenty-seven individual fish were of a kind ever sold in the markets for food, and not a single specimen of the highly prized varieties, such as trout, mackerel, or pompano, could be discovered in the possession of any pelican.

These large, grotesque-looking birds afford winter tourists much interest as they flop about the docks or scramble for fishheads thrown overboard, and many postcards bearing pictures of pelicans are sent north every year. It is quite possible that the profits made on pelican postcards at Florida newsstands exceed in value the total quantity of food fish captured by the pelicans in the waters along its charming coast.

The Federal Food Administration has felt constrained to say that the charge against the brown pelican has been disproven.

What bird will next be indicted?



AMERICANIZATION AND IMMIGRATION

BY ROBERT DE C. WARD

THE war has taught us a lesson which many years of peace failed to teach. It has shown that, in many parts of our country, our "melting pot," of which we talk so much, does not melt; that millions of our foreign-born are in no way assimilated, and, as the late Gen. Francis A. Walker expressed it, overload our national digestion.

That is, perhaps, the misfortune rather than the fault of our foreign population. The blame is partly, but not altogether, our own. We have come to realize that, in spite of the splendid record which our soldiers and sailors of foreign birth or parentage made in the war there is still a real and very important task of assimilation remaining to be done. The Americanization campaign deserves and should receive hearty support. It requires much time, and vast sums of money, and the services of all who love their country and their fellow-men.

Four Steps to Naturalization

The complete Americanization program involves more than many of those who are at present engaged in it yet realize. There are four phases of it: First comes education; second, assimilation; third, Americanization; and fourth, naturalization. These different steps are here separated, for the sake of making the problem clear, although all four phases are naturally and inevitably closely related. The dominant notes in the Americanization campaign at present are education and naturalization, the latter immediately following the former. Far too little attention is paid to the logical sequence of the four stages above named, every one of which is essential to the complete accomplishment of our purpose.

The first step is obviously education. We have suddenly become keenly alive to the danger of having large numbers of aliens among us who cannot speak or read our language, and we realize that the first step must be to give them all a knowledge of English. But it is most important to remember that a common language alone cannot

immediately and completely wipe out all discordant racial differences. We have relied far too much on our public schools to accomplish Americanization for us. We have expected too much of flag exercises and of compositions on George Washington. What is necessarily in many cases often a rather thin veneer of Americanization has been generally thought to be sufficient. The war has shown us that we have a far greater responsibility in this matter than simply to see that our alien population goes to school. A common language is, indeed, an implement of Americanization, but it is only one implement. It by no means completes the structure.

The importation, for some decades past, of several hundred thousand non-English-speaking alien illiterates annually has tremendously increased and complicated the task of educating the millions of native-born American illiterates, of whose presence in the United States many of us have lately for the first time become aware. It surely does not decrease our national burden of illiteracy when millions of alien illiterates are added to millions of native-born illiterates.

The second step is assimilation. This, as the term is here employed, means the adaptation of our alien population to the general standards of living which we designate as American—standards of cleanliness; of hygiene; of public order and safety, and the like. Assimilation is not Americanization, although it is a long step in that direction.

The third stage is Americanization. While assimilation has to do largely with the physical, Americanization is chiefly concerned with the mental and spiritual. It is, of course, true that Americanization to some extent begins at the very beginning, with education, and continues throughout the process of assimilation. But what is here meant by Americanization is the acquirement of such an understanding of our history, our institutions, our government and our ideals as will give all of our foreign-born so deep an appreciation of and love for

our country that they will naturally and inevitably wish to become its citizens.

Both assimilation and Americanization need long, close, patient and unselfish personal contact on the part of intelligent and sympathetic Americans with the foreigners whom it is sought to amalgamate into our body politic. This is no "cheap" and "easy" thing. Neither lectures on American statesmen, nor talks on municipal sanitation, can in any conceivable way replace what personal contact alone can give. As Miss Frances A. Kellor recently pointed out in the *Yale Review*: "We face the indisputable fact that almost without exception every foreign-born male adult is a member of some racial organization which takes precedence in his mind over every other form of association of which he is a significant part."

The Final Stage—Naturalization

Thus we come naturally to the fourth, and final, stage in the process of complete Americanization, that of naturalization. And right here it is important to point out that naturalization is no infallible remedy for the evils of non-assimilation. Normal naturalization, which is the result of an alien's own natural desire to become a full-fledged American citizen, is a sane and healthy process. It is good evidence of his intention to become thoroughly assimilated. But forced, wholesale, artificially stimulated naturalization is undesirable. It does not tend to produce 100 per cent. Americans. It may put on the veneer, but by no means necessarily involves that deep and lasting appreciation of our institutions which is vital in our democracy. It too often results in a situation which is already far too common in this country, in which the "magic" expected of a naturalization court does not work.

When aliens do not of themselves ask for naturalization, they are not very likely to be desirable citizens. They may go through the motions without changing their racial prejudices, and without acquiring either our ideas or our ideals. To quote the words of another, "When you persuade a man to join a club he is very likely not to pay his dues in a year or two, and if you persuade him to join our national society when he does not care much about it, the effect is likely to be similar." The Deputy Commissioner of Naturalization has recently called attention to the fact that there are at present several millions of foreign-born in this country who have not become naturalized.

Colonel Roosevelt's "Polyglot Boarding House"

Far better that the remaining unnaturalized millions should remain such than to force them through the naturalization courts before they are thoroughly Americanized. The movement for immediate and wholesale naturalization of our alien population is ill-advised, even dangerous, unless it involves, as a preliminary, complete and honest Americanization. Common citizenship unless it be of the right kind produces the appearance but not the condition of unity. Theodore Roosevelt's last public words expressed his views on this matter in his characteristically forceful language:

We have room for but one language here, and that is the English language, for we intend to see that the crucible turns our people out as Americans, of American nationality, and not as dwellers in a polyglot boarding house; and we have room for but one soul loyalty, and that is loyalty to the American people.

No American wants any part of the United States, no matter how small a section of it, to be a "polyglot boarding house." Yet that expression perfectly describes the situation which exists to-day in many places.

Why Immigration Should Be Restricted

There is one further step which is an absolutely essential part of the Americanization campaign. The problem is difficult enough, at best, to require all the energy, and time, and money that can be given to it. But no thorough Americanization can possibly be accomplished unless the numbers of incoming alien immigrants are kept within reasonable limits. It is an absolutely impossible task properly to (1) educate, (2) assimilate, (3) Americanize and (4) naturalize our foreign-born population if millions forever keep pouring in. It is exactly like trying to keep a leaking boat bailed out without stopping the leak. To expect any reasonable success in this campaign, immigration must be restricted.

The balance of expert opinion on the question of our probable immigration in the years immediately ahead is that, as soon as ocean transportation is again fully established, there will be a far larger immigration than ever before. It is the opinion of American diplomatic and consular officers in Europe, and of competent correspondents who have recently traveled extensively abroad, that there is everywhere a more widespread desire than ever to "go to America." All the arguments

which may be urged in favor of a decreased immigration, based on the need of labor for reconstruction and for agriculture abroad, collapse when we remember that the great magnet of "America" will continue to draw immigrants to this "promised land." Our part in feeding and caring for vast numbers of people abroad, and in helping to win the war as liberators of the oppressed, and as ready to sacrifice, if necessary, any number of lives and endless sums of money for an ideal, will prove new incentives.

Immigration is essentially a matter of economic conditions here and abroad. As the late Gen. Francis A. Walker so well put it, "the stream of immigration will flow on as long as there is any difference in economic level between the United States and the most degraded communities abroad." A recent writer, after considerable study of the subject, has put the probable annual number of immigrants who will soon be coming here at 2,000,000. Be that as it may, the most enthusiastic believer in the success of the Americanization movement can hardly face the prospect of a steady annual immigration of even only several hundred thousands without doubt and discouragement. To hope to accomplish successful Americanization when the supply of aliens keeps up is to have an optimism "beyond all bounds of reason." A real restriction of immigration is a necessary and a logical part of the Americanization program.

Temporary Decrease Due to the War

The effect of the war in temporarily diminishing the volume of immigration to the United States was, of course, expected. From an annual immigration of nearly a million and a half during the fiscal years 1913 and 1914, and an annual net increase in alien population (*i. e.*, deducting the numbers of those who returned to their own countries) of 800,000, the number of immigrant aliens fell to a little over 325,000 during the year ending June 30, 1915. In the fiscal years 1916 and 1917, about 300,000 came, while in the year ending June 30 last the number of immigrant aliens was only 110,000.

While 110,000 is a very small immigration as compared with the very much larger numbers in the years preceding the war, it is worth noting that these alien immigrants arrived at the rate of more than 2000 a week and nearly 10,000 a month.

From July to November, 1918, the number of immigrant aliens was 45,909, and of non-

immigrant aliens 30,456. How all these immigrants have managed to get here during wartime is a mystery. Obstacles innumerable have been in their way, yet they have kept coming. That they have done so, in spite of the difficulties, shows what is likely to happen on a vastly greater scale in the next few years, when transportation by rail and steamship is once more fully restored.

It has always been held by those who are concerned regarding the admission into the United States of mentally and physically defective aliens that, with a smaller number of alien arrivals, the work of inspection can be more effectively done, with the inevitable and greatly to be desired result that fewer undesirables will escape detection. Our experience during the war has borne out this view. The increase in the percentage of rejections during the past four years is to be ascribed, according to the Commissioner-General of Immigration, to two causes: first, a deterioration in the quality of immigration itself; and second, to more rigid inspection made possible by decreased numbers.

In the earlier days of the war there was a large emigration from the United States of men belonging to the various belligerent countries who went home to fight. The majority of these will naturally come back. As soon as transportation conditions become more normal, there will be a further considerable exodus from the United States of both men and women belonging to the nations which have been at war. These recent immigrants will go home to ascertain the fate of their relatives and friends; to see what has become of their family property, and to bring back with them to this country as many as possible of their families and friends still left abroad.

The New Immigration Law

Our present Immigration Act, after having been twice vetoed by President Wilson, was passed over the veto by both Senate and House, and became law on February 5, 1917, about two months before this country declared war. The new statute became effective on May 1, 1917. It is by far the most comprehensive immigration legislation ever enacted in this country, and if properly enforced would be of immense benefit to our future race.

If any further arguments were needed to show the value and importance of this new legislation the war has supplied them. This law is our only breakwater against the ad-

vancing tide of alien immigration, which will be both increased in quantity and lowered in quality. Everything should be done to secure the effective administration of the new law, which has not yet had to stand the test of a large immigration. Its rigid enforcement will unquestionably result in an improvement in the mental, physical and moral qualities of immigrants even if not designed to reduce greatly their numbers.

In its final report (1915) the National Commission on Industrial Relations reached the following conclusion:

The immigration policy of the United States has created a number of our most difficult and serious industrial problems and has been responsible, in a considerable measure, for the existing state of industrial unrest. The enormous influx of immigrants during the last twenty-five years has already undermined the American standard of living for all workmen except those in skilled trades, and has been the largest single factor in preventing the wage scale from rising as fast as food prices. The great mass of non-English-speaking workers who form about half the labor force in basic industries, has done much to prevent the development of better relations between employer and employee.

The new Immigration Act, while a great advance on previous legislation, goes only a very little way toward remedying the conditions here referred to. This act is *qualitatively selective*, not *quantitatively restrictive*. It will not greatly reduce the numbers of our immigrants.

Our newspapers have lately been making much of the deportation of alien anarchists and of other groups of agitators. Such deportation, while most desirable in every way for the internal peace and safety of the country, is not a large or important factor in our immigration policy. It concerns a few thousand persons only. These deportations are made under the provisions of the Immigration Act of 1917, as expanded and strengthened by a supplementary Act of October 16, 1918. Under this legislation, the United States may expel and deport at any time after their landing, anarchists and similar classes of aliens who preach or practise the use of violence against persons, property or organized government.

Proposed Measures of Restriction

The almost certain prospect of a greatly increased immigration closely following the ending of the war; the manifest injustice of exposing our returning soldiers and sailors to competition with the low-priced labor of Europe and of Western Asia, and the

conviction that our present immigration law is selective rather than numerically restrictive, have naturally resulted in a widespread demand for immediate further legislation which shall really limit the numbers of our alien immigrants. During the Short Session of the Congress which ended on March 4, 1919, the Immigration Committee of the House of Representatives reported a bill (H. R. 15302, Union Calendar No. 359; Report No. 1015), suspending immigration for four years, with many exceptions in the cases of certain professional classes; the near relatives of aliens now in, or who have become citizens of the United States; aliens from Canada, Newfoundland, Cuba and Mexico; aliens who are refugees because of various kinds of persecution, and aliens admitted temporarily under regulations to be prescribed. No action was taken on this bill.

At the hearings which were given by the House Committee on Immigration, the bill was strongly advocated by the American Federation of Labor and by other organizations which stand for the maintenance of American wages and of American standards of living, and which, especially in view of demobilization and of the dangers of unemployment, wish to prevent, at least temporarily, the influx of large numbers of alien workers.

The line-up of the opponents of the bill was the same as in previous years. The old argument was used that there is already enough restriction, and it was urged that there should be more hearings, and further delay. Organizations from whose sympathies the hyphen has by no means been eliminated, and "interests" directly or indirectly concerned with cheap labor and with transportation, were represented among those who spoke against the pending measure. One of the opponents, representing certain labor bodies composed of recent immigrants, maintained that the more immigrants and the more other labor we have in this country, the higher will be the wages of the workers, and the higher will be the general standard of living!

Another bill, which was not reported (H. R. 11280), based on the conviction that one of the best tests of assimilation is the wish to become naturalized, limits the number of aliens to be admitted from any country in any year to from 20 to 50 per cent. of the persons born in such country who were naturalized at the date of the last census. The exact per cent. is to be fixed annually by the Secretary of Labor, with reference to existing labor conditions in the United

States. The percentage plan has the merits of being more than a temporary "reconstruction" measure, and of being sufficiently elastic to respond to varying economic conditions.

That a further real *restriction* of immigration is necessary for the best interests of American labor, and for the proper assimilation and Americanization of our heterogeneous population, has long been obvious to the large majority of those, both Americans and foreigners, who have impartially studied our immigration problems.

Idealists Have Not Solved the Problem

Our attitude on this question of immigration should be clearly defined. Sentiment will never solve this, or any other great national problem. There is no place here for the idealist who shudders at the mere thought of a further regulation of immigration, and who, holding fast to the vision of the universal brotherhood of man, calls "ungenerous" and "un-American" anyone who suggests any further immigration legislation.

The idealist points out what an enormous debt our country owes to its foreign-born citizens. He is constantly reminding us of the remarkable achievements of foreign-born children in our public schools. He has absolute confidence in our capacity to assimilate all people, of all lands, who choose to come here. He believes in the "melting pot," where race hatred and race differences are to be forever done away with. He produces such endless statistics to show that our recent immigrants are far ahead of the native-born in all that pertains to good citizenship that the rest of us sometimes cannot help wondering how our ancestors, of Anglo-Saxon stock, who originally settled the United States, ever had the genius and the wisdom and the courage to fight the Revolutionary War, or to develop our American democratic government.

Yet the idealist is obviously inconsistent when he says that he believes in keeping the United States forever the "asylum and the refuge for the down-trodden and oppressed of all nations." He does not really believe in a "haven" open, unrestrictedly, to all comers. He does not want to admit, unreservedly, the insane, the idiot, the criminal, the prostitute, or those who have "loathsome or dangerous contagious disease." Few of his group want our doors wide open, for all time, to the incoming of millions upon millions of Chinese, Japanese and Hindus. He is beginning to realize that, owing chiefly

to his persistent opposition to the enactment of adequate immigration laws, his "asylum," of which he has said so much, is becoming an insane asylum, and his "refuge" is turning into an almshouse and a penitentiary.

Open-Door Policies "Ungenerous" and "Un-American"

Not immigration restriction but indiscriminate hospitality to immigrants is the "ungenerous" and "un-American policy." To grant free admission to all who want to come may give us, for the moment, a comfortable feeling that we are providing a "refuge for the oppressed." But it is in the highest degree "ungenerous" in us, the custodians of the future heritage of our race, to permit to land on our shores mental, physical and moral defectives, who, themselves and through their descendants, will not only lower the standards of our own people, but will tremendously increase all future problems of public and private philanthropy. It is in the highest degree "un-American" for us to permit any such influx of alien immigrants as will make the process of Americanization any more difficult than it already is.

Again, our so-called "traditional" policy of admitting practically all who have wished to come has not helped the introduction of political, social, economic, and educational reforms abroad, but has rather delayed the progress of these very movements, in which we Americans are so interested. Had some of the millions of European immigrants remained at home, they would have insisted on reforms in their own countries which have been delayed, decade after decade, because the discontent of Europe found a safety-valve by flying to America. Have we, in any way, helped the progress of all these reforms abroad by keeping the safety-valve open?

By encouraging the discontented millions of Europe and Asia to come here after the war, are we likely to hasten, or to delay, the development of enlightened social democracies in Armenia, in Syria, in Hungary, in Poland, in Russia, in Turkey? Our duty as Americans, interested in the world-wide progress of education, of religious liberty, and of democratic institutions, is to do everything in our power to help the discontented millions of Europe and Asia to work out, in their own countries, for themselves, what our forefathers worked out here, for us. That would be the greatest contribution we could make to the progress and preservation of American ideals.

AMERICANIZING NEW YORK

BY EDWARD A. STEINER

[In the sympathetic interpretation of America to immigrants, and of the new Americans to those of older stock, Dr. Edward A. Steiner holds somewhat the same place to-day that the late Jacob A. Riis occupied a number of years ago. Dr. Steiner is a Professor at Grinnell College, Iowa, who spends a considerable part of each year in addressing audiences, and keeping in close touch with the trends of life in the America now building out of the blending of old and new population elements. He has written admirable books and is himself a master of the English language, though born and educated in Central Europe. He has spent the past winter in New York, in close contact every day with the hopeful, though crowded, masses of the East Side.—THE EDITOR.]

DR. WALTER LAIDLAW, who has a passion for statistics and a picturesque way of presenting them, claims that New York City is the youngest city in the world, in that it has the largest number of people between the ages of one and forty. An observer who feels the spirit of things rather than the letter, who is impressed by quality rather than by quantity—let us call such a man a poet—would come to the same conclusion. Stretching her limbs, sore from growing pains as she expands upward and downward, knowing no limits in any direction, drowning her melancholy periods of indecision in mild riots of pleasure, heedless the warning voices of her elder sisters, who have become one with Nineveh and Tyre; learning her lessons only because she must, and not because she will, forgetting the yesterdays and heedless of the morrow, she is by every nervous movement of her slender body, by the exultant note of her strident voice, by the swiftly flowing blood in her veins a young city, the youngest in the world.

Chicago and Denver, San Francisco and Tulsa, Oklahoma, will no doubt object to Doctor Laidlaw's diagrams and challenge them, but if they will come to New York City, and walk with me (who am neither a poet nor a statistician) from the Battery to Bronx Park, say on a sunny Saturday, a glance at the horizontal avenues and perpendicular streets crowded to overflowing by children will convince them, reluctantly of course, that New York is ahead in children. I shall be careful, however, not to take them to the so-called residential section, where the birth rate is somewhat checked by the care and expense necessary for the welfare of Pekinese dogs. Even deducting the less populous West Side, or certain select sections of it, the voice of New York is the voice of

children, and though they are of every breed and race and tongue, they are American in their reckless darting between moving vehicles, in their disrespect for the rights of their elders, in their knowledge of the times and seasons for skipping rope and playing marbles, for baseball and football; also, thank God, in their happiness, they are American children, speaking the language of their adopted country, singing her songs, knowing and loving her history.

The Language of the Children

I have walked the streets of New York City the last four months, I have listened to the young, vibrant voices of her children which I hear from six in the morning till eleven at night, and I have not heard a single word spoken in any other than the English language. What is true of New York is true of the United States as a whole. It is a young nation, its voice is the voice of children, the language they speak is the English language, and their children and children's children will speak no other tongue. With the possible exception of out-of-the-way rural regions, and of those States which were once Mexican, this assertion holds good of the entire country; the language of the children is English.

Those of us who are of foreign birth, who have tried to maintain another language in our homes for sentimental or cultural reasons, have found it impossible, except perhaps in a cruelly mutilated form, where the mothers have not learned to speak English correctly, as by their domestic cares they have been kept from contact with Americans. Yet even in these homes the war has helped put an end to bi-lingualism, although not without tragedies which the native-born cannot understand. Recently

I took dinner at one of these homes, and the mother in an unguarded moment lapsed into German. Immediately the oldest son of the family rose and made protest, threatening to leave the house if that should happen again.

The foreign-language press, which has been indiscriminately denounced, for it is not an unmixed evil, is rarely if ever read by children; and the churches, transplanted from the Old World, have had to add occasional services in English to hold the young people. One would have to go among those far above twenty to find any considerable number who do not speak English, and they would be found only among those who work at hard, manual labor, and live among congested groups of their own countrymen, where contact with Americans is reduced to a minimum. But, even there, sad havoc is wrought with the imported language, for English words and phrases creep in and gradually maintain a place in their vocabulary. The following complaint was made to me by a young man who could not speak English: "Der landlord hat die rent ge-raist." This is pretty nearly good American English. I listened one day to some Chinese who were discussing something which was absolutely Chinese to me, but there were three words frequently used which I could understand—"sure" and "you bet!" They are the first breach in the "Chinese Wall" and more words will follow.

Aliens Fighting for the Stars and Stripes

It is true that the draft disclosed a lamentably large number of foreigners who could not speak English, and who belong to this category. It does not excuse our neglect of this class to say that the draft net was very large, and that it drew in a great number of newcomers not yet citizens. That fact did not interfere with discipline, or with their loyalty. Major-General Crowder, in his report to Congress, cites an instance in which 1500 of these aliens were told that the Government had no legal right to hold them to the colors. The doors to life and freedom swung open; but only 200 passed through them, more than 1300 remaining to fight for the flag which was not yet theirs, and to which they swore fealty, in the face of death. Never before have foreigners assumed the responsibility of citizenship under severer test. A letter from one of these, written in Croatian, reads in part as follows:

MY DEAR BROTHER:

I am young and life seems very attractive. I

love my home, and the temptation to go home is great; but none of my Fathers ever had a chance to fight for democracy. I am going to take that chance. I have sold the civilian suit you sent me to another fellow who does not think the way I do.

Native Speech as a Bulwark of Nationalism

I do not wish to stress this point of the loyalty of the foreign-born youth, even though they could not speak English like this young hero, because an inflamed public mind does not wish to be reminded of the fact. It is among the older adults, especially among the women, that English is an unknown tongue, and they have not only the desire but the need to preserve their native speech. Here, again, I fear I am striking the inability of the American to understand the situation.

Many of these, especially the Poles, Slovaks and Magyars, have come to America from countries in which the struggle to preserve their nationality revolved wholly around the question of language. Bohemia's heroic fight against Germanization is the great epic of modern nationalism. Poland, though politically severed, has maintained unity through its language. The cruelty of their oppressors was the continued compulsion exercised upon language, and it became to the Poles a bulwark to be defended, a sacred symbol and a strong fortress.

Moreover, the more intimate relationships in life, the aspirations of the soul, cannot be easily translated or readily understood in any other than one's native language. The action of certain governors of Western States in prohibiting worship in any other language than English was to those involved a sad reminder of oppression which they did not expect to experience in the land of the free. By that action many were driven into radical camps, and the learning of the English language was made obnoxious.

America a Nation of One Language

There are certain things which need to be remembered. First of all the United States is a uno-lingual nation. If America remains a nation a thousand years—and may it be deathless—the language of Congress will be English, the language of commerce and education, of literature and social expression will be the same. It holds undisputed sway.

The languages of the early conquerors and colonizers, French and Spanish, are nearly gone, with exceptions in the case of Spanish. German remains as a corrupt dialect in Pennsylvania, though eaten through by

English phrases wherever it is found. The scholars and authors who were sent over on their propagandist mission found no understanding among the German masses, and had to confine themselves to colleges and universities, where the intensive students and teachers of German philosophy and literature were mostly Americans.

Should the Use of English Be Compulsory?

Yiddish, Italian and Slavic will vanish with the cessation of immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe, and there is no indication that these languages will corrupt or influence our English speech. To me, born and reared as I was in the center of the European language struggle, the achievement of America in keeping its language dominant is as remarkable as it is rare, and is due to many reasons—among them the fact that there was no governmental pressure to achieve it. I am a frequent visitor of foreign-speaking lodges and societies, and I find that fully 90 per cent. of them have forsaken the use of their vernacular, and have adopted English, poor English in most cases, but English nevertheless.

On the twelfth day of February I was asked by a lodge whose membership is made up entirely of foreign-born men and women, to speak on Abraham Lincoln (and wonders can be wrought among them with that name). This lodge has a service flag of over thirty stars and four of them have turned into gold. It was also left to me, for I was the guest of honor, to present a gold watch in the name of the lodge to a returned and wounded soldier, one of their members. The exercises were remarkable for their fervor and sense of devotion to the United States, and for the fact that the lodge members made their present to an Austrian, who had been fighting Austrians on the Italian front. It is easy to imagine that if there were a law to compel these societies to conduct their ritual in English, the sense of spontaneity would be gone, and no such fine exhibition of loyalty would have taken place.

It is urged that the study of English should be made compulsory in order to stamp out sedition and radicalism. I do not know just how many extreme radicals there are in this country, but I am safe in saying that most of them speak the English language, while many of them are native Americans springing from the oldest of that stock. Those who were convicted of obstructing the draft were able to speak English. The

curbstone orator speaks English, and most of the radical press is printed in the same language. Evidently, knowing English has not prevented Americans and foreigners from becoming disaffected and dangerous.

My own conviction is that the illiterate foreigner is not the most menacing element in our population, and that a little English, which is all that most of them could learn, may be "a dangerous thing." The English have succeeded in making the Irish speak their language to the point of almost losing their Gaelic speech; yet knowing English has not made the Irish loyal to England.

English Can Be Better Taught Without Compulsion

The people of Alsace-Lorraine predominantly speak German, it is the language of their literature; but that has not prevented them from *feeling* French, though most of them do not know that Latin tongue. Compulsions have nearly always bred opposition and disloyalty, and I can imagine all the foreign-born people in the United States speaking English as eloquently as Daniel Webster, and spelling it as correctly as that other Webster of dictionary fame, and yet the sum of loyalty not being increased. There is a naive belief here that if a foreigner should learn to read the Constitution it would be his and our salvation.

We are incurable worshippers of the letter, especially of pretty phrases, and seemingly have forgotten that "It is the spirit that quickeneth." However, I have always urged the teaching of English to foreigners. In fact, my American critics have been rather hard on me when I have emphasized that point, and suggested that we have Grand Opera sung in English. We have always taught too little of it, and not too much; we have done it poorly rather than well, and my protest is not against its being taught, but against its being taught by compulsion of law, believing as I do that economic and social impulsions which are operative will accomplish better results.

Teach One Foreigner to Speak English!

I am heartily in favor of making the movement national, the State creating the opportunity and providing the means. If there is to be any kind of legal coercion, I would compel every native American citizen, who is the kind of citizen he ought to be, to teach at least one foreigner to speak English. Even if he does not succeed in teaching him to

read and understand the Constitution of the United States, he will by projecting himself into the life of the alien, create contact, and a sense of neighborliness which, in the last analysis, is the essential thing for his Americanization. It would also serve to enlarge the vision of the American people, which they need, and compel them to be a good example.

*Good Work in Schools, Settlements,
Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A.*

The best work of Americanization has been done by the public schools. The underpaid, overworked American teachers have been the high priests or rather the high priestesses of the American spirit, and rather tardily we have awakened to that fact. Their work, of course, has been preponderantly with the children. The Settlements come next. They have made whole neighborhoods American; they radiate Americanism at its best and our great cities owe them a larger obligation than they realize. They are the "House of the Interpreter."

The Y. M. C. A. is facing the most difficult situation, for its deals with groups which are the center of economic disturbance and social unrest. Its work is excellent, even though circumscribed.

The International Institute, an organization under the auspices of the Y. W. C. A., is somewhat more fortunately situated and its plan appeals to me as more effective. In every community where the International Institute operates, the work is supervised by a fair-minded American woman, who has under her charge interpreters, who visit in the homes and Americanize the women, by not only teaching them English, but by performing services of friendship, which can be understood in all languages.

Attitude of the Churches

The churches which the immigrant imports yield themselves reluctantly to this task, and have frequently opposed Americanization. They are often nationalistic churches and until lately were supported by their respective governments. This menace has been removed by the war, and in many instances the immigrants themselves are opposing the resumption of such control.

A leader among the Hungarian people of New York confessed to me that his influence among his own people is gone, and that they demand American guidance and leadership. Contrary to the general belief, Roman Catholic priests are helping in the endeavor to

Americanize their people, and I know of many Y. M. C. A. secretaries who are conducting classes in parochial halls.

American Protestant churches have attempted the task of Americanization without satisfactory numerical results, because they are under suspicion of proselytizing. They would be more successful if Christianizing and Americanizing were not used by them as interchangeable terms. The foreigner is usually not a heathen, and while his brand of Christianity may not be "our kind," it tends toward loyalty and respect for law and order.

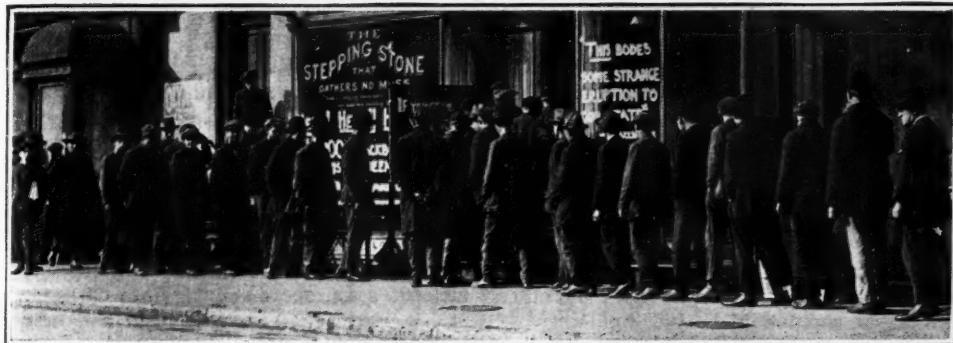
Sane and Wise Educational Campaigns

The Bureau of Education under the Department of the Interior is doing good work in enlightening public opinion, and while it sometimes touches the alarmistic pedal, it is on the whole, sane. Secretary Lane and Commissioner of Education Claxton are both Americans of the best type—men of vision and of purpose.

The State of New York, under the guidance of the Department of Education, is "tackling the job" in a very fundamental way. It is training teachers to instruct foreigners in English. At the same time it attempts to give these teachers a knowledge of the background of the different groups which differ widely from one another and need different methods of approach.

It is an interesting fact that wherever the task has been attempted in a sane way, it has dispelled fear and has led to the realization that while English is necessary as a tool, it must not be used like a steam-roller.

It should be a key to open the doors of human hearts which are locked because of past experiences in an atmosphere of suspicion and fear. In more than one respect are we in danger of catching the disease of the Old World which we have tried to cure by our entrance into the war. It may be wise for us to remember that Germany assimilated millions of Slavs while she was still wise, and that she added nothing but doom to her domain when she began to be silly. The cracks in the structure of the empires which were wrecked by the war were caused by undue pressure from above. While the situation in the United States is not, perhaps, analogous, a word to the wise may not be out of place, spoken as it is by one who has faith to believe that the wise are still in the majority in this country, which is the hope of the human race.



WAITING IN LINE FOR BREAD AND COFFEE AT "THE STEPPING STONE" IN NEW YORK CITY

SOLVING THE PROBLEM OF THE UNEMPLOYED

BY GEORGE W. KIRCHWEY

(Director, U. S. Employment Service, for the State of New York)

THE incongruity of war with civilized life is most keenly realized when one turns from the cheering crowds that welcome our home-coming heroes to the industrial conditions which confront and daunt those heroes when the tumult and the shouting have died away. It is true that in America, as compared with Belgium, France, Great Britain, and the other countries whose fate it was to bear the brunt of the conflict, the war has only scratched the surface of the every-day life of the people. Here the war period took on the form of an era of unexampled prosperity. But even if the war brought no destruction to our doors, its unique modern character of a gigantic industrial conflict interwoven with the military struggle of a world in arms, resulted in a serious dislocation of industrial life. With nearly four millions of men under arms and at least twice that number of men and women engaged in the production of munitions and other war material—more than a third of the man power of the country uprooted from peace-time activities—no other result was possible.

If to this is added the transfer of an equivalent amount of capital and credit withdrawn from ordinary industry and tied up in the industries devoted to war production, it is easy to see that the transition back to a normal industrial basis could not be accomplished without painful delay and confusion. In short, there was bound to be a consider-

able condition of unemployment pending the time when the ordinary industries, which had been suspended or crippled by the war, should revive and get back to a normal basis. This process is now under way, but is proceeding slowly and irregularly. The confidence which is essential to a quick revival is still lacking and this condition of doubt and indecision in the business world is kept alive by the continued high cost of labor, machinery, and raw material, as well as by the embargo which continues to hamper foreign trade.

A Labor Surplus

Meanwhile the condition of unemployment which set in almost immediately upon the conclusion of the armistice has been steadily increasing. The rapid demobilization of the army and of the war workers has thrown men and women on the labor market at a rate far in excess of the capacity of our slowly reviving industry to absorb them. The actual amount of unemployment cannot be determined except by an exhaustive census, but the weekly reports of the labor market gathered by the United States Employment Service show an ascending curve from the first week in December to and including the second week in April, which is certainly disquieting. At present such reports are received regularly from about 7000 plants in 122 cities, with a combined payroll of nearly 3,500,000 employees. Though these reports

are still fragmentary, they furnish a reliable barometer of the tendency, still unchecked, toward an increasing labor surplus.

Labor's Restlessness

The seriousness of this condition of affairs is not to be measured by actual statistics of unemployment, even where these are available, but rather by such facts as the lengthening of the bread-lines in New York and other centers of population, by the rapid increase in the last few weeks of thefts, burglaries, and robberies in our larger cities, and by the reports of "acute unrest" which mark the rising tide of unemployment in many parts of the country. The term unrest may mean anything from conditions breeding a strike or lockout to processions of the unemployed or riotous demonstrations, such as occurred in the city of Buffalo a few weeks ago. Nowhere in the country have these demonstrations taken on a serious form, but they are the surface indications of a widespread condition of restlessness and resentment which have not to the same extent manifested themselves in previous periods of unemployment.

The dull resignation which is usually characteristic of the army of unemployed is conspicuously lacking in the returning soldiers and war workers who were drafted from permanent industry to serve their country in the emergency of war and who see in the attitude of the ordinary employer, as in that of the community at large, no substantial recognition of their services or needs. It is true that most employers who are able to do so are willing to take back their old employees who went into the military or naval service of the Government, but this leaves many still unaccounted for and the patriotic impulse is too feeble to extend to war workers other than soldiers or even to soldiers—and their name is legion—who desire something better than the old job.

This condition of affairs is aggravated by the disposition of many employers to take advantage of a congested labor market by reducing wages to a "normal" before-war basis—an attitude which is as bitterly resented by the highly paid war worker as by the soldier fresh from the hardships and heroisms of war service.

Back of all these obvious facts lie the deeper springs of the spirit of unrest which permeates the army of the unemployed—the reaction from the war-psychology and the contagion of European example. Which of

us, even in this isle of safety, have not felt something of the relaxation of civic discipline, a touch of the spirit of recklessness and some of the unrest which the war must have brought in fuller measure to the boys who committed themselves to the great adventure, or to the men who became knights-errant of industry during the last two years? And if we have not been shaken by the spectacle of a Europe dissolving into chaos, let us not forget that unemployment and destitution furnish a congenial soil for the growth of discontent such as has borne such evil fruit on the other side of the Atlantic.

No Bolshevism Here

Bolshevism, as that term is commonly understood, is as alien to American habits of thought as it is to our institutions. The governmental drives at this monster, whether emanating from Washington or from Albany, seem to most thinking men to be no more than panic-stricken attempts to deal with the symptoms rather than the causes of social unrest. Bolshevism is only another name for desperation, the desperation of hunger and the denial of the most elementary satisfactions of human life. Those who fear its appearance in free America would better concern themselves with devising means of employment for those who lack that anchor of stability and contentment.

But the fear is groundless. The figures are against us, but "the imponderables" are fighting for us. The curve of unemployment is still slowly rising, but the tide of public interest and coöperation is rising faster. Through numberless public and private agencies the problem is being solved.

Public and Private Agencies

The most effective of these agencies, the United States Employment Service, neglected by Congress and almost destroyed through that neglect, has by an uprising of public spirit not only been preserved to carry on its beneficent work, but has been reinforced by State and municipal aid and by the coöperation of Chambers of Commerce and of the numerous and devoted war-welfare agencies like the Red Cross, the Knights of Columbus, the Y. M. C. A., the War Camp Community Service, and many others. In addition to the regular employment offices of the Federal Service, nearly 500 in number, there are special offices of the service in the 78 demobilization camps and over 2000 soldiers' bureaus in active operation. At every Em-

barkation Camp on the other side and on every returning transport, the men are interviewed and listed and the cards of those needing the aid of the service transmitted to the employers of labor. There is no longer any doubt that the returning soldiers,

sailors and marines will be promptly put back into industrial life and that the labor surplus will soon be a thing of the past. And just beyond, a few months further on, there shines the promise of a new era of industrial prosperity, when there will be work for all.

THE "SOCIAL UNIT" IN CINCINNATI

BY CHARLES A. L. REED

(Former President American Medical Association)

A LABORATORY experiment in practical democracy is now in progress in the United States. It may be described in more explanatory terms as an effort to ascertain, by strictly scientific methods, some way by which the people may come to govern their own municipalities. It may also be spoken of as an effort to make democracy safe for itself and safe for the world. The experiment is staged and promoted by the National Social Unit Organization, of which Mr. Gifford Pinchot is president, and of which Mrs. Charles L. Tiffany, Mrs. J. Borden Harriman, Mr. John Jay Edison, Mrs. Daniel Guggenheim, Mr. Wm. J. Loeb, Jr., Mr. Charles Edison, and many other equally well-known men and women of all shades of political opinion, scattered from Boston to San Diego, are active and deeply interested members and substantial supporters.

The Atmosphere

This organization, having adopted a definite plan, naturally sought a congenial atmosphere in which to try it out. Several cities were investigated with this object in view. It so happened, however, that the people of Cincinnati, many years ago, after having been supplied with water by a private company, revoked the franchise, built their own works, and laid their own mains. This was their first step in the public ownership of public utilities. Other similar steps have since been taken. They, the people of Cincinnati, have built and now own a railroad to the profit of their public exchequer and the enrichment of their commerce.

They have built and now own and operate a strictly municipal university with some four thousand students. They own and operate therewith a really phenomenal school of en-

gineering with the great manufacturing plants of the city as co-operative laboratories. They own a Class A medical school which they operate in connection with their own new four-million-dollar hospital. Schools, playgrounds, parks, milk service, nursing service, health service, and medical service are among their other co-operative municipal activities. Certain of the largest industries of the city, among the largest and best in the whole country, have been for years on the profit-sharing basis, and now one of the very largest has announced the policy of elective representation of the employees in its directorate. These facts, with the habit of Cincinnati to attend to its own business in its own very independent way, indicated precisely the "atmosphere" that was being sought by the National Social Unit Organization.

The Plan

The plan was submitted; a certain definite area was to be set aside—as it proved to be, thirty-one city blocks, with about 15,000 average American citizens of mixed national antecedents and diverse occupations. The people, about 500 in each block, were to meet *en bloc* and elect a "block worker" who lived in the block and knew the people. She—the block workers are all women—was to hunt up possible tuberculosis cases, find expectant mothers, new-born babies, sickness, dependencies, unsanitary conditions—in short, hunt around generally, find people who ought to be helped, conditions that ought to be better, and report them to headquarters.

There was to be a medical organization embracing all the physicians of the district, who were thereby to come into control of the hygienic, sanitary, and medical situation

among the people for whom they lived and labored and with whom they had their being. Adequate nursing service was to be installed quite on the district plan. Records of the most scientific kind were to be kept.

The block workers were to meet in a Citizens' Council—and elect an executive; the physicians in a Medical Council—and elect an executive; the nurses in a Nurses' Council—and elect an executive; and persons in the various occupations in the district were to elect representatives to the Occupational Council—which also was to elect an executive. These Councils were to meet, consider the welfare of the district, plan coöperation, but above all to effect a 100 per cent. contact of the movement with the people and of the people with themselves—a most important and much-needed thing in a democracy. Everything in the experiment was to be elective, of record, scientific, but above all to be frank and wide open for inspection and study.

The Experiment in Progress

Cincinnati, through its civic bodies, examined the plan, liked its scientific spirit, invited the organization to come, set aside the selected "laboratory" district, and turned over, as far as it could, its own activities in the area; for Cincinnati, through several hundred of its citizens acting for it, felt that, apparently, the whole project was based on the natural law that is inherent in society and that makes for broader life, larger liberty, and the readier pursuit of happiness. So the Social Unit was established in the district in January, 1917, but it was well on to mid-summer before the working organization was perfected. Headquarters were established, offices and clinics were opened; each block was organized; the physicians responded with encouraging unanimity; nurses were installed; and representations from social centers, social workers, business men, public schools, trade unions, nurses, physicians, and ministers, all of the district, were elected to the Occupational Council. Each individual

and each group proceeded to functionate smoothly and effectively in their respective capacities.

Some of the Results

A year later, after several of the leaders in the movement had been criticized because of their supposed radical and "Bolshevist" tendencies, the group of 600 or 700 citizens who had been responsible for starting the work in Cincinnati proceeded to investigate. They found that the experiment had really been carried on in good faith and on the precise lines that had been submitted in print and agreed to before anything had been done. Much had been accomplished. Three hundred per cent. more of tuberculosis had been ferreted out than had been at first reported to the unit; the mortality from influenza had been many per cent. less in the district than in the immediately adjacent territory; infant mortality had been lessened; accidents of childbirth diminished, hygiene of habitations vastly improved, and the people themselves had been educated by example and practise to at least some better observance of the natural law which, in the last analysis, is the arbiter of their destinies.

But above all they found the people happy over the work of the Social Unit; all had heard of it; many had participated; some had been its beneficiaries—and none had forfeited his or her self-respect in giving or accepting help—help, not charity. A committee of the Academy of Medicine declared that much good had been done and advised that the experiment be continued.

On April 10 the question whether or not the experiment should be continued was submitted to a vote of the people of the district. Out of a total of 4154 votes there were only 120 against continuance. It was estimated that at least two-thirds of the total number of persons entitled to take part in the election actually voted, so that the declared result may be regarded as a clear indication of public sentiment in the district.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

APPRENTICE "EXECUTIVES" FOR THE LEAGUE

THE political career of the future will, more than ever before, assume an international aspect, since the League of Nations must have standing committees, secretaries, and other officers, of international representation and powers; and politics will be more a matter of economics and sociology than of law. It is interesting, in this connection, to learn that there are, ready to hand, international bodies already organized and functioning to secure joint international control of basic materials. Chandler P. Anderson, Esq., in a signed editorial published in the *American Journal of International Law*, discusses the work of these committees, and says:

These Executives, as they were called, were international joint committees organized by agreements between the United States and the principal Allied Governments, each committee being vested with certain well-defined executive powers relating to the procurement and distribution of some one or more of the materials mentioned (nitrate of soda, tin, hides and leather, miscellaneous raw materials, and some food supplies) to the best advantage of all the participating countries. . . .

The general plan upon which all of these Executives were formed was for the appropriate governmental agency in each country to enter into a special agreement with the others, establishing the particular Executive created thereby and stipulating that it should be composed of an agreed number of representatives of each participating country with authority to carry out the specified arrangements agreed upon, with the proviso that these arrangements must be modified and readjusted from time to time by such further agreements as might be necessary in order to serve the best interests of all concerned. These special agreements further provided for and defined, subject to the aforesaid reservation as to modifications and readjustments, the specific powers and duties of the Executives thereby established.

Perhaps the most difficult problem taken up by these Executives, or committees, was the control of production, purchase and distribution of nitrate of soda to the best ad-

vantage of all the Allied countries at the lowest possible price. Practically the entire world supply came from a single source—Chile, a neutral country. It was provided that all nitrate should be purchased when and as authorized by the Committee at the prices fixed by them, under a Director of Purchases appointed by the Executive. All purchases of this valuable commodity were thereupon to be pooled in price and quantity for the common interest; and imported to the several countries determined by the committee in accordance with the allocations specified in the agreement.

Where part of the output came from neutral countries and a fairly large percentage was produced in the United States or some one of the Allied countries, a different situation was presented; and here several directors of purchases, acting under the direction of the Executive, bought in conjunction with each other and to mutual advantage. In other cases markets were allotted exclusively to certain countries and in addition they received their proportionate share of the bulk common purchases of the group. The Executive then covered price differences by monthly readjustments, so that each country paid the same average price for its respective share. Each country, however, reserved the right to select its own purchasing agents.

Studies and reports of methods for the economical domestic distribution and use of the raw material after it passed from the hands of the Executive were an important phase of the work; and each country was required to give full information to the Executive of the supplies on hand, and of all purchases from all sources for its own use. Mr. Anderson says:

The underlying condition, which was essential to the success of these arrangements and which entered into all of them, was the governmental control exercised during the war in each of the participating countries over imports and exports,

because it was necessary to agree, with reference to the materials under the control of each Executive, that the respective governments would exercise such control over their respective nationals as would prevent them from buying these materials through any channels except those provided for under the direction of the respective Executives.

What will be the ultimate development of this coöperation among the governments

of the world is to be revealed only by events; but the importance of the results secured cannot be overestimated. It would be an ironical turn of the wheel of Fate should the Thirteenth Century Hanseatic League invented by the Germans be revived in the Twentieth Century in a League of Nations assuming practically worldwide economic control.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN THE NEW ERA

THE proposed political League of Nations has been prefigured in non-political organizations whose name is legion. M. Paul Otlet, secretary-general of the Union of International Associations, tells us in the *Revue générale des sciences* (Paris) that the first international congress (non-political) met in 1840, and that about 2000 international gatherings, of one sort or another have been held since that time. There have been formed a great many permanent international associations and bureaus, devoted to the promotion of a wide range of scientific, technological, industrial, social and other objects. Some of these are strictly official, with members appointed by the various governments; others are entirely unofficial; and still others are of a mixed character.

In the year 1910 the need of coöordinating the activities of these various bodies led to the convocation of a World Congress of International Associations, and this meeting gave birth to the permanent Union of International Associations. A second congress met in 1913, and the third, but for the war, would have held its sessions in the United States in the year 1915.

The situation following the war marks a new era in the history of international organizations, making it opportune for us to set down a few facts from M. Otlet's long retrospect and forecast on this subject. The League of Nations, if it is consummated, will undoubtedly give new vigor and coherence to international movements in general. M. Otlet cites a plan that has been proposed whereby the League would directly maintain a variety of international establishments, including academies, museums, laboratories, archives, etc., and provide funds for the various international associations.

Apart from the Union above mentioned, there is an International Association of Academies, under the auspices of which there have recently been held "inter-allied" conferences to consider the means of carrying forward collaboration in the different branches of science. For the time being, at least, the Teutonic countries find themselves excluded from the international scientific bodies now undergoing reorganization, but future policy on this subject cannot yet be determined. This is one of the questions to be discussed at a forthcoming Congress of International Associations, to be held in Brussels as soon as circumstances permit.

Some of the problems awaiting consideration by the various international bodies are summarized in M. Otlet's article. These include the question of appropriate standards and units of measurement for universal use; the subject of uniform scientific terminology and an international auxiliary language; the question of an improved and uniform calendar; and numerous other problems to which much attention has already been given. Under the head of "documentation" M. Otlet outlines a project that will arouse much interest in scientific and educational circles. This plan, which has been urged by the Congresses of International Associations, contemplates a system of publications whereby the latest advances in every branch of knowledge would be presented in convenient form. We should have an encyclopedia kept constantly up to date; abstracts and reprints of current literature; scientific directories; chronicles of scientific events; digests of data, etc.; a complete programme of digesting and cumulating knowledge, instead of the fragmentary efforts in this direction that have hitherto been put forth (chiefly, be it remarked, by the Germans).

Lastly, we are glad to be reminded by the article under consideration of the substantial work that had already been done at Brussels, before the year 1914, toward the creation of an intellectual center and clearing-house for the world at large. This appears to be intact and ready to resume operations. In a building provided by the Belgian Government many of the international associations

have their permanent headquarters; there is a collective library, formed from the libraries of sixty-eight associations; there is the vast International Institute of Bibliography, with a collection of eleven million cards arranged by author and subject; there is an international museum, occupying seventeen large halls—in short, an impressive focus of internationalism.

RATIONAL DESIRES OF WORKINGMEN

OUR text-books of political economy have encouraged the belief that among all who toil with the hands money is the only thing sought after. Artists and scientists, it may be conceded, find their reward in the joy of achievement—not so the workingman. A few brave souls venture to claim for him the same power (though often latent) of enjoying self-expression. He seldom claims this power for himself.

Even the proceedings of the learned societies are invaded, from time to time, by the humanist, the man who believes that however materialistic the age there is still possible for the individual a certain joy in living and creating. Thus, in the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* (Philadelphia) for March, Prof. Irving Fisher, of Yale, offers some highly interesting suggestions on "Humanizing Industry."

Among the many rights which the workingman has heretofore only partially enjoyed Professor Fisher regards the right to healthful conditions as preëminent. Many, it is true, do not yet recognize the importance of this right. The labor leaders themselves do not seem to have attached the first importance to it, but, as Professor Fisher points out, health is the workingman's capital, his only important asset. When he loses it, he loses the power to earn his living.

Some people say that if his wages were raised, his health would be improved. This is doubtless true, but it is still truer that if his health were improved, his wages would be increased. To improve slightly an individual's health will not necessarily, it is true, nor always, increase that individual's wages; but if we increase, even slightly, the health, and thereby the working power of the nation as a whole, the general wage level will rise. In the last analysis wages depend on productive power, and the workingman's power to produce is dependent on his muscle and brain, *i. e.*, his health.

The Rockefeller Hookworm Commission, by spending about 65 cents per capita, has made over thousands of Southern whites into able-bodied laborers. Great returns may be expected from investments in factory sanitation, lighting and ventilation, in better food, housing, clothing, sports and amusements for workingmen, and in various forms of health insurance, labor legislation, school hygiene, etc.

Professor Fisher proceeds to show that the workingman should have not only physical health, but also mental health, and mental health depends on the satisfaction of certain fundamental instincts. A human being whose instincts are thwarted becomes an enemy of society. This has been assigned as the real reason for the I. W. W. "They rebelled, like the small boys of a large city without playgrounds, who break windows for excitement." In other words, the I. W. W. workingman is the "naughty boy of industry." If the energy which makes him destructive had been enlisted for constructive work, he might have made a more useful workingman than his more docile and less energetic brother. Professor Fisher admits that it may be too late to reclaim him now, but he holds that we can at least prevent the making of more of his kind.

Professor Fisher proceeds to name seven major instincts which apparently must be satisfied to make a normal life:

First, there is the instinct of self-preservation. The securing of a living wage must always be the first concern of a workingman. This has always been recognized as basic, and I need not therefore dilate upon it. Furthermore, self-preservation demands the maintenance of healthy working conditions, the prevention of over-fatigue and the provision of safety devices. No man can do his work well if he feels that it is fitting him only for the scrap heap. Finally, every employee should be assured of a steady job so long as he does his part. If he has to be "laid off" without

any fault of his own, he should have due notice or a suitable dismissal wage. Fear of unemployment dissipates energy.

Secondly, there is the instinct of self-expression, or workmanship. Until modern industry contrives to satisfy this instinct in the ordinary workman, our labor problem will not be solved. I shall consider this below in greater detail.

Thirdly, there is the instinct of self-respect. Unless the workman is made to feel that "A man's a man, for a' that," he will be our enemy, will cherish a grievance, and will become anti-social.

The employer should, so far as possible, use praise for incentive rather than blame. If it is really necessary to call a man down, the rebuke need not be administered before his fellow-workers. The workman should be considered trustworthy until he has proven himself untrustworthy. Rivalry in production involves the satisfaction of the instinct of self-respect.

Fourthly, there is the instinct of loyalty. The universality of this instinct is strikingly illustrated in this war. Devotion to a cause, sacrifice for this cause, heroism if you like, have been shown by soldiers whose whole training has been one of monotonous industry. The instinct of loyalty should be satisfied in industry, as it is in the trenches. The employer often misses a great opportunity to be his workingmen's hero or honored general instead of their task master.

If the men can organize, a team spirit will develop. Collective bargaining and other forms of control of the industry by the men will fore-stall useless "knocking" and discontent and will develop loyalty instead. Mass activities, group singing, marching in a parade, wearing a button or cheering a baseball team will develop and foster a united feeling.

Pride is an important constituent of loyalty. Workers have a right to expect that their plant is one worth being proud of. Fundamentally, loyalty is based on justice and mutual consideration. The employer who can best put himself in the place of his men best secures their loyalty. Extra work or overtime can, by loyal workman,

be "volunteered" with pleasure where "conscription" might arouse ill-feeling.

The great instinct of love, or of home-making, is a fifth instinct, and one vital for society. The homeless, migratory I. W. W. is an example of what occurs when life is deprived of its satisfaction. A man thinks of his own family as part of himself. His success means their happiness. Any action on the employer's part which affects family welfare immediately arouses resentment. The unrest caused by inability to enjoy family life or by bad instinctive life outside the plant is demoralizing. In a word, conditions of employment should, in every way, conduce to a happy family life.

The workingman's instinct of worship, if we may properly speak of such a faculty as a sixth instinct, hungers and thirsts for righteousness and often is not filled. If his daily work appeals to his whole nature and not merely to a portion of it, the task will be exalted to become really a part of his religion. No man should have to do work which is degrading or which will tend to crush idealism or warp the spirit of humanity and service.

Finally, the play impulse must be satisfied to produce mental health. The saying, "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy," is true of the laboring man.

Some instincts are almost inevitably repressed, and, deprived of a wise outlet, are in danger of an unrestrained outburst. Play provides a safety valve. This play should not be frivolity, still less dissipation, but entertainment which will develop physical and mental health and a broadened outlook on life. A long workday makes proper play impossible, and is largely responsible for a man's resort to drink and other perversions of play.

Of the seven mentioned, only the instinct of self-preservation is even fairly well satisfied by the majority of workers. We thrum too continually on this one string. Human nature is a harp of many strings. We must use the rest of the octave.

THE EASTERN BARRIER

COMMENTING on the terms which Marshal Foch will present to the Germans, the London *Times* says that France has a right to extra military guarantees on her frontier towards Germany, and these guarantees may well have to take the form of special territorial readjustments.

But the chief weakness in the future [observes the *Times*] will be in Eastern Europe, and that is why a barrier of new states, to be erected between the Baltic and the Adriatic, will need strengthening by every means in our power. Although France has a particular interest in the west front, the defection of Bolshevik Russia makes it desirable that she should find some substitute on the East for her old Russian alliance, and it must be a great joy to her people that this substitute should take the form of a barrier line of free peoples.

Our own position has many points of resemblance to that of France. The main avenues of the League of Nations' communication with free peoples between the Baltic and Adriatic will be over the sea, and, therefore, we are anxious about free passage into the Baltic, and also that there should be at its eastern end friendly powers to provide the navies of the League, after they have entered the Baltic, with repairs and facilities of operation.

On the occasion of the presentation of colors to the Czech army in France on June 30, last year, President Poincaré, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs Pichon, and the British Minister of Foreign Affairs Balfour, each expressed to the Czechs wishes for their national independence and for the close union of Bohemia with Poland and Jugo-Slavia, and Minister Pichon declared in addition

that those three states are to constitute a defensive rampart restraining German invasions in the East.

The close of the war sees at length the recognition of the truth that the three states of true Slavonians, united closely, constitute the best assurance of universal peace. When this opinion was expressed two years ago, when the war was at its height, in the columns of a Paris periodical, it was the isolated utterance of the thought of only a single writer. A remarkable passage in one of a series of articles (that of August 5, 1916) on the Polish national policy from the pen of the eminent Polish philosopher, Prof. Vincent Lutoslawski, in the French section of the Paris *Polonia*, read as follows:

The true Slavonians constitute three groups: In the north, the Poles and Ruthenians, united for five hundred years. They conjointly produced the original constitution of the Polish Republic. In the center, the Czechs, Moravians, Lusatians, and Slovaks, who are beginning to form a homogeneous nation, the nearest geographically and psychologically to Poland. Finally, in the south, the Jugo-Slavs, formed through the union of the Slovenians, Croatians, Dalmatians, and Bosniaks with the Serbians.

These three Slavonic nations, together with the Rumanians, who also have Slavonic elements in their blood and in their language, will form an impregnable rampart about the Germans. None of these nations could alone resist the German pressure. The Bohemians particularly, to be independent, absolutely need as a neighbor a great Poland, restored in its boundaries of 1772, with the addition of Silesia and East Prussia, which were lost by Poland prior to that date. The three Slavonic states, with Rumania, would have about a hundred million inhabitants and could furnish the Western alliance of Great Britain, France, and Italy with more than ten million soldiers for the defense of European liberty against all German aggression and against all oriental invasion.

When this opinion was expressed in 1916, it was a very bold assertion, remote from universal recognition. To-day the program of a Slavonic union is penetrating the convictions of the Western governments. For this there were required nearly four years of the war—so long did we have to wait for a clear enunciation of the governments as to the future of Poland. During the first three years of the war the Poles were entrusted to the care of the Czar, and only a year after his fall did France and England recognize that independent Poland, with Bohemia and Serbia, will constitute the most effective defense of Europe from German dominion in Asia.

The dispute between the Czechs and the

May—6

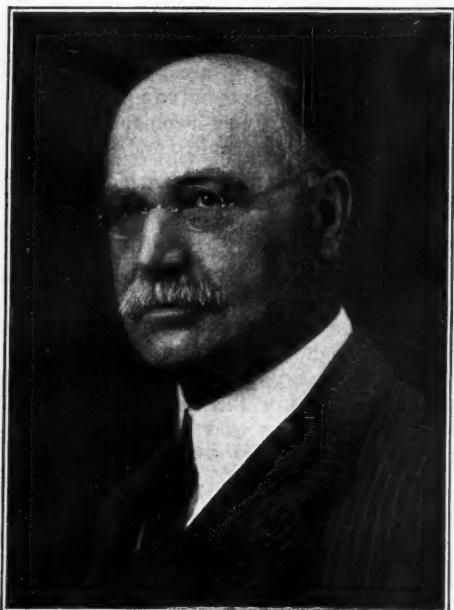
Poles about the district of Cieszyn in Austrian Silesia is on the eve of a satisfactory settlement by the Peace Conference, and friendship will be restored between the chief Slavonic nations. And among the Ukrainians (Ruthenians), when they shall be thoroughly rid of German influences, there may arise the desire for a close alliance with Poland. Thus, there is outlining as a reality the union of the true Slavonians, with the exclusion of the Muscovites and Bulgarians, on whom nobody any longer relies. This union, says Professor Lutoslawski in the Chicago *Dziennik Zwaizkowy*, is really a condition not only of the security of Europe and of the conversion to true Christianity of the renegade Germans, but also a necessary condition of the independence of those peoples who are neighbors of the Germans on the east. Only a very close alliance among these peoples can assure their independence and show the Germans that even little nations can defend themselves, when they are united.

The example of the ancient Union of Poland with Lithuania and Ruthenia [observes Professor Lutoslawski] is a model for the broader union joining Poland, restored in her former boundaries, with Bohemia and Jugo-Slavia. It is not a question here of the domination of some over others, but of an understanding and of a common defense of the liberty common to all of them. It is necessary at last to understand once for all that political liberty is such a treasure as can only be kept together with one's neighbors, helping them sincerely; whereas every nation that should want to secure its own liberty at the expense of its neighbors, would expose itself to slavery.

Free people should be fair in relations with their neighbors and not aim to abuse their freedom for the restriction of the liberty of their fellow-men. This lies at the very heart of the question—that he cannot be free who oppresses others, nor even he who passively acquiesces in others' injury, when he can prevent it. A free nation should have the willingness to perform the greatest sacrifices to save the liberty of every oppressed nation, as every act of oppression, if it do not meet with opposition, becomes a menace to those who themselves do not yet suffer oppression and look indifferently on the oppression suffered by others.

The world war has revealed on a gigantic scale the solidarity of the peoples prizes their freedom. It has been recognized in England that the independent existence of France is an indispensable condition of English freedom. It has been recognized even in America, Australia, and South Africa that if freedom should be stifled in Europe, it would not be able to hold out anywhere. But nowhere is this solidarity of the nations thirsting for liberty so necessary as among the Slavonic peoples, who separate the Muscovites and Germans. For these peoples there cannot be liberty without the closest solidarity.

PRICE-FIXING AS SEEN BY A PRICE-FIXER



PROF. F. W. TAUSSIG

(Chairman of the Tariff Commission)

IN the Price-Fixing Committee of the War Industries Board, created in March, 1918, Prof. Frank W. Taussig, of Harvard, Chairman of the United States Tariff Commission, served as a member. This committee was one of the three governmental agencies that attempted to regulate prices during the war, the other two being the Fuel Administration and the Food Administration. Professor Taussig contributes to the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Harvard) an interesting account of the Government's experiments in price-fixing, as conducted by these three agencies.

It appears from his survey that Government price-fixing during the war was not uniform in its objects, and, instead of being guided by established policies, was in the main opportunist, "feeling its way from case to case." Of the three agencies, Professor Taussig finds that the Fuel Administration, dealing with a single commodity, was able to proceed with most system and method. The Price-Fixing Committee had a wide range of operations and was slowest in developing a general policy. In fact, the

Committee never did more than approach a principle of action gradually and tentatively, and it is pointed out that this self-restraint was on the whole most wise, since new situations and problems were sure to arise, for whose disposal no rule could be laid down in advance.

As it turned out, regulation came to an end almost immediately after the conclusion of the armistice. No new price agreements were made and those in effect were permitted to lapse as they expired. In almost all cases prices had been fixed for periods of three months, and as each period came to its close, no further action was taken, and thereafter the free play of market dealings again set in. Most of the agreements terminated late in December, 1918, or on January 1, 1919; a few held over for a month or two in 1919.

Since the experiment was not carried through to the end, or with system or consistency, Professor Taussig considers the lessons to be drawn from it far from conclusive, as regards fundamentals, and qualified even within the limited range to which they apply. He says in concluding his article:

So far as the experiment went, and so long as it lasted, the outcome seems to me to have been good. The rise of prices to be expected from inflation of the circulating medium was not prevented; but then no endeavor was made to achieve this sweeping object. There is nothing in all the price experiences to prove or disprove the contention that, irrespective of legislative or administrative fiat, general economic forces must work out their general effects. But that the impinging of the forces was in some degree affected and curbed seems undeniable. Food and fuel prices were prevented from fluctuating as widely and soaring as high as they would have done in the absence of regulation. A result of the same kind, and apparently not less in extent, was secured for other price-regulated articles.

The traditional statement of economic formulae gives them an appearance of greater rigidity and sharpness than is warranted by the premises on which they rest. Supply and demand, monetary principles and monetary laws, are customarily formulated in exact terms, with an appearance of mathematical sharpness. The qualifications which must attach to these "laws" in any concrete application or predication, familiar to the well-trained economist, leave abundant room for some exercise of restraining and deliberated action. No doubt there are limits to which such action must be confined; but they are not narrow limits, and within them much was done which proved of advantage to the country.

THE FUTURE OF TRIESTE AS A PORT

WHAT should be done for the port of Trieste, one of Italy's chief rewards for her participation in the great war, is fully and satisfactorily discussed by Signor Vittorio Segrè in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome).

The writer is firmly convinced that we must start with the supposition that the redemption of Trieste shall be conjoined with that of Fiume, "since the commercial and economic existence of Trieste is indissolubly connected with that of Fiume, with that patriotic city which is already ideally united with the Mother Country."

The possession of the one without that of the other would reduce the Italian triumph to a merely military exploit, a glorious one, indeed, but ineffective and unproductive. Neither geographical position, the efforts of rulers and people, nor the creation of industries and of steamship lines, would avail to save Trieste from the loss of its traffic to the other port, through which would pass the main tide of commerce from the Levant to the Occident, and which would become for the exports and imports of Central Europe, to and from the Mediterranean, the great port of exit and entry, drawing to itself the trade of the hinterland which has formerly gravitated, and still gravitates toward Trieste, and thus causing the complete decadence of this emporium.

An important question to be settled when the possession of both ports by Italy shall have been granted, concerns what special advantages are to be accorded to Trieste in regard to its coffee imports. For Austria, the concession of a preferential tariff on coffee was an easy matter, considering that the only means of introducing that staple was either by way of Trieste or Fiume. If Italy should decide to adopt the policy of monopolies, all discussion is idle, but if this policy is not carried out, the writer strongly questions whether Italy, which has so many ports, could concede the sole benefit to Trieste, and not make similar concessions to other ports.

It should, however, be remembered that if for Trieste, which already has an extensive commercial organization in every direction, this privilege would add the crowning benefit of maintaining the greatest element of its traffic, for the other ports such an innovation would only possess a very relative value. Moreover, the preferential tariff on coffee would not only enable the merchants of

Trieste to import it into Austria and Hungary by the help of the lower rates they would enjoy, but this benefit would act as a powerful expansive force for the trade with many different countries, especially on the Mediterranean.

Trieste, which has suffered so much from the disturbance of its marine traffic since the outbreak of the war, certainly deserves the accordance of this privilege, at least for a decade, either exclusively or shared with Genoa, which since the war has been a market for coffee. However, Signor Segrè fully recognizes that the problem is a difficult one, requiring for its just solution the greatest circumspection, combined with the greatest tact and sympathy.

The program for the definite assurance of Trieste's position is thus presented by Signor Segrè:

(1) The maintenance of the two ports, Trieste and Fiume, in free zones, dedicating the one to the traffic of the main national lines, and to the exportation of the merchandise most rapidly exchanged, the other to the bulky raw materials, such as cotton and ores.

(2) The concentration of the authority over all the administrations in a single hand, that is to say, under the control of the General Royal Warehouses, an institution which must be managed by the state, the latter having in its turn to preserve for the institution a complete monopoly as to unloading and loading, in perfect accord with the administration controlling the railways.

(3) No combination of enterprises to be permitted, and no competitive privileges as against private undertakings, but the co-operative management connected with the state to be maintained, coöordinated and developed.

(4) The appointment, within a brief time, of two commissions of experts and practical men, one for the study of the Austrian laws and customs regulations in their relation to those of Italy, with the especial task of removing any obstacles which may be noted in the regulations of the Italian ports; the other commission for the study of the railway rules and rates, and also concerning the establishment of new railway connections, factors of prime importance for the economic future of the great port of Trieste.

(5) On the basis of the "Commission of Traffic" already existing, there should be created a council of experts in finance, navigation, insurance and traffic, chosen from among the members of the Chamber of Commerce, and the great industrials and merchants, so that they may give to the ministry, in view of the future commercial treaties which will fill so large a place in the peace transactions, the information and advice necessary for the development of the entire traffic of Trieste in connection with that of the Mother Country.

THE PROBLEM OF DANZIG—POLISH? GERMAN? NEUTRAL?



STREET IN DANZIG

A TIMELY and interesting article on the much-discussed question of Danzig's future appears in the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Switzerland)—the writer signing himself "A Pole."

(1) The Poles (for whom it is the sole access to the sea) demand that the city should be reunited with Poland, to whom it belonged before the partition of the latter.

(2) The Germans demand that Danzig, being an almost wholly German city, should remain a German possession, invoking President Wilson's declaration that only populations uncontestedly Polish should form a part of reconstructed Poland.

(3) The third solution is a compromise: to neutralize the lower reaches of the Vistula and proclaim Danzig a free port.

Which of these solutions is the most just, and offers the best guarantees for the future?

Let us first establish the historic facts: *Is the city of Danzig German or Polish?*

Since the partition of Poland it has belonged to Prussia. If we consider the city alone, the majority of the population is German. But before the partition the city was Polish, not alone because it voluntarily formed an integral part of Poland, but be-

cause its inhabitants had always been Polish in sentiment—so ardently so that it was the last place in the dismembered country to take up arms in 1795 against Prussian annexation.

Having no German neighbors, the city of Danzig, from the 10th century on, was in conflict with the Swedes, Danes, etc. It was only in the 14th century that the Teutonic Knights became its neighbors, when, entering into negotiations with it, they invited its most noted men and hospitably strangled them all. But their sway was short-lived. After the battle of Grünwald, in 1410, where they were defeated by the Poles, West Prussia, including Danzig, declared itself independent of the Germans and *voluntarily* demanded to be united to Poland; the union took place in 1454, and the inhabitants, suffering no constraint from the Poles, became devoted adherents of the country.

After the partition of Poland, Danzig, incorporated with Prussia, became in greater part German. The Prussian methods being the opposite of those of Poland, one can not but wonder that the Polish element, after 123 years of Prussian rule, has not been exterminated. That régime is too well known to need exposition. Let us merely mention that the Polish language has been rigorously excluded; that Polish workmen were compelled to belong to German societies.

If we add that under Polish rule Danzig attained its highest degree of economic development, we may enter upon a discussion of the three suggested solutions.

Should the first solution be adopted—*the city assigned to Poland*—its future may be clearly outlined. Danzig would become what it was when a Polish city; reunited to its ancient and real home, it would again enjoy perfect freedom, national and religious, with opportunities for a truly marvelous economic development. Despite the rigor of Russian domination, Poland has greatly developed her industries, which sought outlets in Russia, and, through Russia, to the East. It is towards Danzig that Polish industry, regenerated and unhampered, will send its products; towards Danzig that the Polish streams will carry to the Vistula the produce of Polish soil; towards Danzig that all the canals to be constructed will run.

We shall not discuss the second solution—to assign Danzig to Germany: an absurd solution, because it would in advance destroy the prosperity of resuscitated Poland; an immoral solution, because it would sanction the crime of the partition of Poland by recognizing the rights acquired by that criminal proceeding.

As for the third solution—to neutralize the lower Vistula and proclaim Danzig a *free city*—it may be said that it would practically amount to an incorporation of Danzig with Germany. After being compelled to abandon the rosy dream of the Berlin to Bagdad railway, Danzig would form a new, important economic center, with the Orient as an objective. It is easy to foresee the

result of the competition between Poland and Germany. The Germans have totally destroyed Polish industry; a Polish marine is yet to be created; while Germany has all its economic resources in a highly perfected state.

Danzig a free city means German Danzig—a new, powerful station of the millennial German expansion towards the East.

There is—the writer concludes—but one equitable, satisfactory solution, offering every guarantee for the future: to restore Danzig to Poland, its country inherently and by adoption.

THE REFORESTING OF FRANCE

THE all-important question of an adequate supply of timber in France is fully discussed by Paul Descombes in a recent number of *La Revue de Paris*:

Speaking of forest regeneration, the writer says it would be all the more fatal to delay that indispensable work, since even in peace times the French forests yielded less than half of the timber used in the industries of the country. France ought, then, first of all, to double its wood production. It is thus confronted by two problems: to double permanently the national output of timber; to procure for the next five years an annual supplement of six million cubic meters.

After the war—M. Descombes continues—France will be obliged to import annually over ten million cubic meters of lumber, a quantity representing more than a billion francs (\$200,000,000). Since it can obtain the greater part of that quantity in its colonies, it is of prime importance that it should utilize their resources, instead of purchasing lumber in foreign lands, and enhance by that much the value of its colonies.

Although colonial lumber—traffic in which was in great part monopolized by the port of Hamburg—has hitherto been imported in but small quantities, and that generally confined to rare species, men with foresight have turned their attention to developing that industry, without exhausting its source. Even before the war the Minister for the Colonies organized several forestry missions, while the "Paris Society of Commercial Geography" published a study dealing with forest preservation in its bulletin of December, 1912; and the Government sent out, during the war, the Bertin mission to Africa, whose reports were summarized

at a Congress of Civil Engineers by M. Gillet and M. Rouget. The object of the mission was to substitute in great measure colonial lumber for the ordinary lumber purchased abroad. It is, doubtless, a great undertaking to organize a vast exploitation which shall, on the resumption of labor, furnish ample material; to familiarize the commercial world with these new products by circulating samples as rapidly as possible. And the mission has carefully studied all the details of the necessary steps, indicating the part to be taken by the government and by private initiative.

Certain portions of this organization should be realized at once. No time should be lost in installing in every colony a forestry service, lest the French overseas dominions be exposed to the danger of excessive exploitation, such as in the beginning of the war—before the establishment of the military forestry service—ruined so many French forests.

It is generally estimated that the French colonies possess over a billion cubic meters of timber, so that if an annual exploitation of ten million cubic meters is accompanied by the requisite reforestation they will be able to maintain that figure for centuries to come. The importation on a large scale of timber from the colonies, indispensable for France to tide over the present critical period, will run no risk whatever of interruption when the forests of the mother-country shall furnish their normal output, for industrial progress is always accompanied by an increase of timber consumption. In the United States it has doubled, *per capita*, in thirty years, in England in forty years, and a similar increase is taking place in France.

THE ALSATIAN PROTESTANTS

IN *La Revue* (Paris) of March 1-15 L. I. M. Dumas writes in simple, clear style, and with intimate psychological sympathy, of "Alsatian Protestantism and French Sentiment." The writer seems to be an officer of the Army of Occupation, whose unit has been shifted from one to another Alsatian city. One surmises that he is a very liberal-minded man theologically, bred in Roman Catholic environment, like the educated French generally.

On the first day of our entrance into Alsace, I heard an officer let fall, concerning the Alsatian Protestants, the sweeping declaration: "They're all Boches." Again, in a railway carriage a pair of native civilians sat among French officers. One of the two remarked: "'Tis the Jews here who know French best; in fact, they're generally right good Frenchmen." An officer retorted: "They're not like the Protestants, then." The civilian made the frank reply, such as he would never have ventured to a German in uniform, "I'm a Protestant myself, and I don't wish it said the other Protestants aren't French."

This reveals a widespread, mistaken, but excusable impression (especially prevalent among French military men) which the writer proceeds most tactfully to efface.

In the capital, Strasburg, the venerable M. Gerold is the senior and leading Protestant clergyman. For his pro-French utterances in war-time the German rulers silenced him, and also imposed a prison sentence—which they never dared execute. On November 24, 1918, when he entered his church again to preach his first French sermon, the whole congregation stood up, as solemn homage to him and to France. On December 9 the President and Prime Minister were formally welcomed, in the same edifice. One of a group of officers, visiting the church next day, complained to the author of its "icy coldness," the utter lack of special decorations; yet the pastor had personally welcomed the two great French statesmen to the city, as he was the accepted head of the entire Protestant clergy.

Many austere churchmen have scruples against any secular display in the House of God. But far more than that, mere joyous welcome is not the whole attitude of Alsace. There is worry, some fear, occasionally even terror.

A Catholic priest talked frankly of his own people. The peasants are deeply religious. France is accounted irreligious. She

promises freely now. At first changes will be in minor matters only. But the enforcement of her own standards will increase. "Eventually religion will be rendered anemic. The soul of Alsace will have vanished with its fervor and its faith." Yet the overwhelming majority of Catholics still believe that they are regaining both a political and a religious fatherland.

The Germans, while merely coquetting with Catholicism, have impressed on the Protestants that their fate was absolutely bound up with Protestant Germany and its Lutheran Kaiser. "If France revives religion at all"—said the German immigrants and propagandists—"she will remain Roman Catholic. She will persecute all dissent, as she did of old the Huguenots. Only with us are you safe!"

So, when France came, some Protestants imagined themselves isolated, a hopeless minority in a Catholic nation, even political suspects, as the followers of a German reformer. That is, not all the seeds of the propaganda had fallen on stony ground. One pastor said frankly: "But our preaching will be forbidden, our liturgy altogether suppressed."

Such a lie has some kernel of excuse or foundation, usually. And in 1914, when the French overran the valley of Münster, one village pastor, a German by birth, was forbidden to preach, but suffered to carry on the regular service otherwise. And after a very brief time, the commandant went in person to announce to him the lifting of the ban. Yet the incident was skilfully exaggerated to appear but part of a general and settled policy.

Alsace never was Germanized at all. Teuton officialdom, Teuton militarism, the cry of "Deutschland über Alles!" remained as hateful as the personal insolence of the German lieutenant. To the gruff "You are Germans!" the peasantry always replied: "No, we are Alsatians!" If the desire took shape, never again to be the football or the booty of contending nations, but to stand safely aloof and independent like Holland or Switzerland—that was but human.

In the study of one pastor, criticized for his "coldness" this last autumn, the writer read an ante-bellum sermon, written just after the murderous Zabern incident. "He had felt it as a whiplash on Alsace, and he,

too, reared and plunged." He had written, *e. g.*, "This junior lieutenant is part of an organism whose spirit is bad, whose attitude disturbs us,—and that spirit should vanish." The author sees no fault in pastors of such courage and sincerity. When all dreams of independence fade, when Alsace actually is French, their unquestioning loyalty will still be gladly shown to her. The rest is for time, tact, patience, and wise liberalism of legislative treatment, to bring about.

But (as readers of the famous story *La dernière école* will recall) the language has always been more German than French. The more stolid peasant temper does not react easily to Gallic gaiety and effervescence. German rule is a half-century old, and not a few born Alsatians are frankly Germanic in their political, social and intellectual life.

A really pathetic confession by a young school-mistress is a fine human document, to be appreciated only if perused in full.

While the village Protestants generally are only wondering what measures will be enforced under French occupation, my heart is sad over Ger-

many's defeat. I love the German literature. I could not help it. I was so educated, and in our own schools. I feel that Alsace has found happiness on the German track ("in the German furrow"). I wish she could have followed it. I did not wish her to become French. It pains me. I do not conceal it, nor am I ashamed of it. But I cannot break with my own Alsace, and wish to follow her—in sadness but in loyalty.

To a reminder how difficult her task must thus become, she answered, after silence, with suppressed tears:

Yes, I realize. What will become of me later I do not know. I am conscious only of the moment's crisis. But could not trust be felt in my loyalty, in my feelings of honor and duty?

The French writer, deeply versed in psychology, believes such elements as he has pointed out to be among the most valuable for the creation of an ideal future Alsace, which he believes to be already indissolubly merged in France. One might go yet further, and propose to leave such an Alsace, in absolute freedom and peace, to see some day, perhaps, for herself the value of French citizenship, and to beg for it as a privilege.

THE PART PLAYED BY RAILROADS IN THE WAR

THE paper in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Paris) for March 15, by General de Lacroix, on "Railroads during the War" certainly opens in a way to arrest the attention of an American reader:

The application of railway service to war dates from the campaign of '59 in Lombardy. In July, 1861, on the plateau of Manassas Junction, the Confederate General Johnston brought up 8000 men, by train, to reinforce General Beauregard. . . . This unexpected arrival, in the heat of the battle, just when the superior Federal forces thought the fight was won, turned the tide and assured victory for the Confederates. This was the first example of the actual use of railroads for rapid transit from a great distance to the field of battle itself.

The Germans, as usual, made prompt and efficient use of the means invented and first applied by others. When the "eight days' campaign" of '66 enabled Prussia to shoulder Austria out of the Diet, redraw the map of North Germany, and slip into the position of foremost military power in Western Europe, it is evident that masterful use of transportation, hardly less than the detested conscription laws of the previous years, had made all this seem so easy and inevitable.

General Lamarque's prophecy was fulfilled: "It may be that steam will one day work a revolution (in methods of warfare) as complete as did the invention of gunpowder."

In new factors, the old maxim was to be emphatically restated:

It is not enough to have an abundance of effectives; they must be brought to bear, betimes, at the desired point. The game is a continuous, played, in time and space, with reserves. It is a directive and regulative activity for the High Command, throughout the entire course of the battle or series of battles: it is maneuvering, under control of the commander's brain and hand.

Railroads make possible the instant mobilizing and concentration of the army. Then begins their service, planned in detail long beforehand, up to the very firing-line and through the whole region behind it. Provisioning, munitioning, removal of the invalided, wounded, and prisoners, transport of men on furlough or en route to outposts, the speedy conveyance of the daily couriers, etc., etc., must always depend on the railroads. Always overburdened, they must be kept in continuous service and constant re-

pair, and flexibly extended at the shortest notice wherever and whenever the army moves.

On the stroke of midnight, August 2d, 1914, all the railroads of France passed from civil into military control. Henceforth every change of time-table, every movement of rolling stock, was dictated by the need of winning the war. So the connected sketch of railway activity in 1914-18 is virtually a rapid review of the war itself. This is almost wholly from the French point of view, because only on this side are statistics, and data generally, as yet accessible for the writer.

Only a rapid glance can be thrown at one or two picturesque incidents. Thus in 1915 a fleet of fifty-two steamers arrived at Marseilles from India. It brought what, until this war, might have been considered a great foreign army of invasion: 70,000 Gourkas and Sikhs, with their peculiar personal baggage, ammunition, artillery, etc. All these had to be promptly disembarked, entrained, and transported across France to the British trenches on the Flanders front. And this was a minor task.

There was perhaps no moment when the Council of Allies was nearer to panic than when they were threatened with a debacle in Northern Italy, on the heels of Russia's collapse and withdrawal from the struggle.

On October 23, 1917, the very day when the Germans penetrated to the South of Plezzo, the (Railway) Company was called upon by the military authorities to bring together, within twenty-four hours, the means of transportation, including, of course, the train crews, sufficient to take across the Alps, by express, 120,000 British or French troops, with their artillery and military stores of every description.

This miracle was successfully wrought. In less than the required time, 500 locomotives and 12,000 cars were speeding from all parts of the national system toward the zone of embarkation. Next day the trains stood, made up, in sufficient numbers to meet the actual demand as the troops appeared.

On the 28th, the twelve thousand cars were in motion, and in four days completed the run to the Trentino from the Southern French front. When on November 8 the Italians ended their retiring movement westward, they were able to halt in security on the Piave, assured of direct union of their forces with the Anglo-French troops.

And close on the heels of this first expedition there steamed over the Alps 200 more engines dragging 5000 carloads—an adequate supply of munitions and food for the time.

Upon this prompt and efficient action followed successively the end of the retreat, relief from imminent peril, permanent security, aggressive confidence, and decisive victory. Probably nothing less energetic and immediate could have stopped the successful rush of the Germans across Italy to assail the French from the south and east. And we were ourselves not seriously in the field at all. The whole war might have resulted wholly otherwise.

Most marvelous of all, however, is the sudden recovery that began in July, 1918. The enemy's advance in Belgium and French territory since March had wrought wide havoc in Northern France. Entire railway lines had been rendered useless, notably from Amiens to Arras, from Paris to Chalons *via* Château Thierry, etc.

Paris, however, is the heart of the whole network of French railways. Thanks to that condition, it was possible, under the shadow of a supreme crisis, for all the radiating systems to concentrate their material resources and unify all their personal efforts with reference to the final success of the military operations.

Many vitally important stations, magazines, workshops, had been destroyed or evacuated. Thus, even one at Epernay, which was not captured, was largely stripped and dismantled, as a military precaution. Thousands of carloads of tools and materials had been shipped far southward.

Before these difficulties had been at all overcome, there were issued orders from Headquarters for continuous transportation of troops, as an imperative military necessity. These two tasks the railroads were forced to carry on simultaneously. Meantime Foch's offensive, pushed without pause from July 18th onward, rapidly regained full freedom of action for the railway lines as for the armies, and the two moved onward together until the decisive triumph.

Thanks to the defensive forced upon the enemy, on the lines of the Aisne and the Vesle, they found themselves utterly unable to carry off in their retreat the great mass of stores at Soissons, Fère-en-Tardenois, etc. Wasting their energies on lines useful only in covering that retreat, they were maneuvered out of one section after another, to utter exhaustion, demoralization—and surrender. In all this marvelously rapid sweep forward the flexible organization and incessant energy of the railway system were indispensable at every step.

A MINE BARRIER FROM NORWAY TO SCOTLAND

THE lifting of the veil that enveloped so many remarkable events of the late war has revealed no more interesting episode than one described by Capt. Reginald Belknap, U. S. N., in a lecture published in the *National Geographic Magazine*, under the title "The North Sea Mine Barrage." Captain Belknap tells a graphic story of an exploit carried out under his command. It was stupendous in itself, and momentous in its consequences, for it opposed an almost insuperable obstacle to the operations of German submarines and thereby materially hastened the end of the war.

From the time our country entered the conflict, says Captain Belknap, the Navy advocated strong offensive measures to block the German bases, so that few submarines, if any, might get out, and those that did might be caught and destroyed in returning. Such undertakings could not, however, be carried out close to German shores.

The German forces were very strong for operations near their own coast, and although the British destroyers were constantly planting mines in the Heligoland Bight, they could not prevent the German mine-sweepers from keeping channels open through these mine fields.

The enemy even had special vessels called barrage-breakers, and they were also very much assisted by bad weather, fogs, and variable currents, which handicapped the Germans much less than the British, who had to operate from a starting point farther away.

There was also the Skagerrack passage between Denmark and Norway, where no barrier could be placed without violating neutral waters. Consequently, the enemy submarines could always use this channel going to and from their bases at Kiel and Wilhelmshaven.

Any barriers that the allied navies could place near the German coast and near the Skagerrack were so close to the German bases that the enemy could at any time break through at some point by suddenly attacking there with more force than the Allies could maintain over any one section of the

whole line, so far away from the bases in Great Britain.

There were mines in plenty near the German coast, forcing all enemy craft to be very careful and now and then doing them some damage; but the submarines could still go in or out. The barrier close to the German coast could not be made effective.

The solution of the problem thus presented was made possible by the ingenuity of an American electrician, Mr. Ralph C. Browne, of Salem, Mass., who laid before the Navy Department the plan of a submarine gun. Although this invention was pronounced impractical, it embodied an idea which led to the development of a new type of submarine mine, the most important feature of which was that, by a simple automatic device, it could be moored at any desired distance below the surface of the water. This mine offered so many advantages over

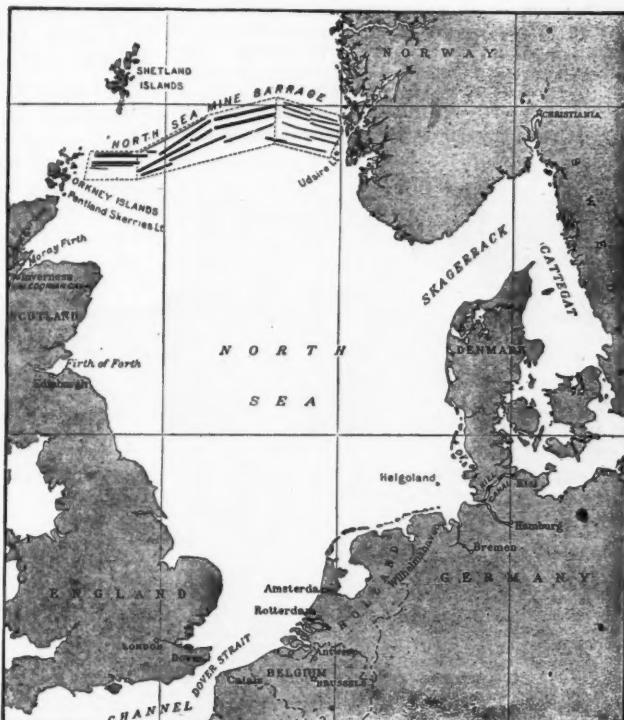


CHART OF THE NORTH SEA, SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE MINE BARRAGE LAID BY THE AMERICAN AND BRITISH MINING SQUADRONS

(When this mine barrage was found to be effective, Germany realized that her submarine warfare had failed and that the ultimate defeat of her land forces was inevitable)

previous types in economy and effectiveness, as well as the facility with which it could be planted, that the Navy was inspired with the audacious idea of closing the North Sea against submarines by laying a mine field all the way from Scotland to Norway; a distance of 230 miles, or as far as from Boston to New York. The undertaking would cost tens of millions, and might prove a failure; but it appeared to be the only hopeful solution of the submarine problem, and so, in October, 1917, it was formally approved by the Navy Department and the work went forward.

Coöperation in the fullest measure was necessary from the start. Over 500 contractors and sub-contractors were soon engaged in the manufacture of the many parts, small and large, that go into the make-up of a complete mine.

Besides being a rush order all through, the task was complicated by the necessity for keeping parts of the mine secret. Some pieces had to be made here and others there, and both kinds sent to a third place to be joined, and all of the parts were finally delivered at Norfolk, Va., for shipment to Scotland, where the complete mines were to be assembled and adjusted, ready to plant.

There was a great transportation problem involved, originally estimated to absorb the use of 60,000 tons of shipping for five months. Beginning their sailings in late February, a group of twenty-four steamers, managed by the Naval Overseas Transport Service, were constantly employed, with two or three departures every eight

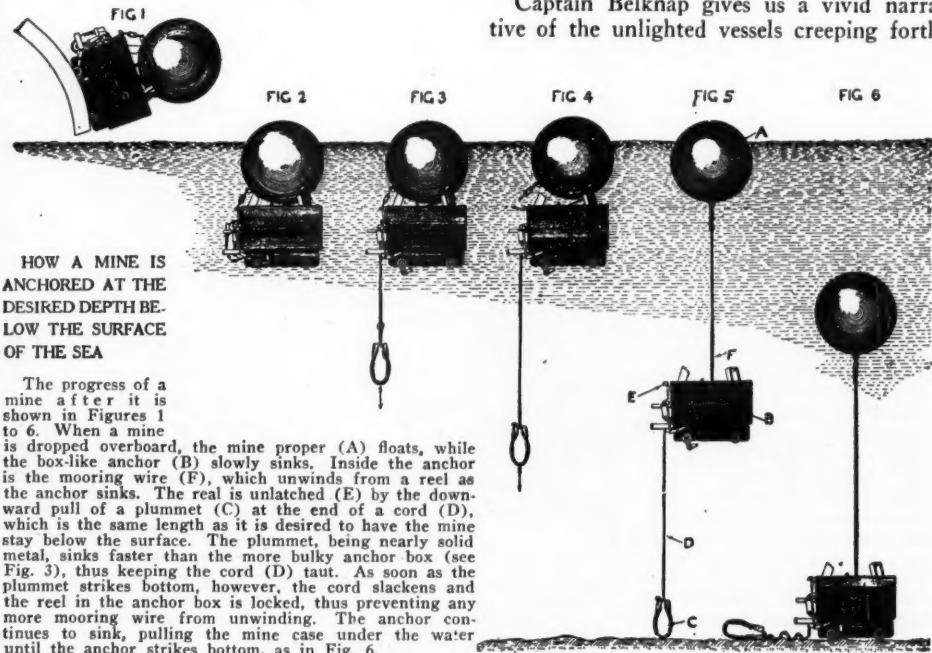
days, carrying mine material and stores for the northern barrage.

It was through a submarine sinking one of these ships, the *Lake Moor*, with forty-one of her crew, that our operation suffered its greatest, almost the only, loss of life.

Meantime the British naval authorities were preparing depots for us in Scotland. The mine material was to be unloaded on the west side of Scotland; some cargoes at Fort William, at the western terminus of the Caledonian Canal, and some at Kyle, on Loch Alsh, opposite the Isle of Skye. Thence the cargoes would be forwarded by canal barge and by rail to Inverness, and to Invergordon, on Cromarty Firth, respectively. These harbors open on Moray Firth, about eight miles apart, on the northeast coast of Scotland.

Here American naval officers established two large bases, each manned by a thousand men and together capable of preparing a thousand mines a day. As it was expected that each mine-laying trip would occupy about five days, it was decided that the mine-laying squadron should have a capacity of upwards of five thousand mines. This squadron consisted of two old cruisers, the *San Francisco* and the *Baltimore*, and eight merchant ships. Each ship was equipped with from four to six elevators for raising the mines rapidly to the launching deck, thus greatly facilitating the process of planting. The squadron sailed for Scotland May 11, 1918, and on the evening of June 6 the first mine-laying cruise was begun.

Captain Belknap gives us a vivid narrative of the unlighted vessels creeping forth,



under an escort of British destroyers, cruisers and battleships; the nocturnal journey to the Norwegian coast; and the anxious moments that preceded the early morning signal to begin planting, when it was still uncertain whether the enterprise that had cost so many months of preparation would prove a success. Everything went smoothly, and the ships returned to port after establishing a new world-record in mine-laying.

There were in all thirteen excursions by our squadron and eleven by the British mine-laying squadron. Twice the two squadrons were joined to lay their mines in company. On the first occasion our Rear-Admiral Strauss went out in command of the joint force; the second time Rear-Admiral Clinton-Baker, R. N.

On one of these joint excursions ten American ships planted 5520 mines, the four British ships 1300, making a total of 6820 planted in four hours.

This is the record for number. A few weeks later our squadron alone planted a field seventy-three miles long, making a record for distance.

The whole barrier contained 70,117 mines, of which 56,571, or four-fifths, were ours. The average was three excursions a month, though the intervals between were irregular. We steamed altogether 8700 miles in 775 hours while on these excursions.

Quite early in the summer, after only the second excursion, our work began to bring results, and more and more reports came in of submarines damaged or lost in this vicinity, although the British policy of secrecy about submarine losses concealed the definite numbers.

The actual losses will probably never be fully known; but, according to report, the Germans admit the loss of twenty-three submarines there, and the British Admiralty staff have been quoted as holding that the surrender of the German fleet and the final armistice were caused largely by the failure of the submarine warfare, this failure being admitted as soon as the mine barrage was found to be effective.

FLYING OVER MOUNTAIN TOPS

THE forthcoming business of exploring by airplane will involve a number of problems, one of which is that of ascending to great altitudes in order to pass over mountain ranges, whether these are or are not the immediate objective of the explorer. In the *Geographical Review* (New York) Mr. Henry Woodhouse discusses "High-Altitude Flying in Relation to Exploration," and deals particularly with the fascinating subject of flying over the Himalaya. The writer reminds us that

The trail of the airplane has already been carried over several of the world's famous ranges—over the Alps and the Andes; and new roads of conquest have been made in an interesting series of flights across the classic and forbidden ground of the Atlas. Last year three French aviators under the direction of Com-dant Cheutin, Director of the French Air Service in Morocco, using Voisin bombing biplanes flew from Meknes to Bou Denib, crossing both the Middle Atlas and the High Atlas. The following day three small Nieuport pursuit-type biplanes made the return flight from Bou Denib to Meknes. One of the aviators continued on to Rabat. It was a flight of about 260 miles each way at heights of about 15,000 feet, because parts of the High Atlas are from 12,000 to 14,000 feet high. It was made successfully in a little over three hours. Previously Lieutenant Vasseur had crossed the High Atlas from Agadir and Marrakech. The mountain flying that has already been accomplished encourages aviator and geographer to look towards the conquest of the loftiest and least attainable of the world's ranges—the Himalaya.

It is evident that mountain flying involves different requirements from those presented by the two prospective aeronautical feats upon which popular interest is just now centered, *viz.*, transatlantic flight and the airplane expeditions to the North Pole.



CREATORS OF A NEW WORLD'S ALTITUDE RECORD FOR AEROPLANES (30,500 FEET): CAPT. ANDREW LANG, R. A. F. (LEFT), AND LIEUTENANT BLOWES

In Arctic exploration and transatlantic flight we have three requirements to be met:

(1) A sustained flight, twice as long as the longest yet made.

(2) From ten to twenty-five hours' continuous service of the pilots on the airplane.

(3) The use of instruments for determining the course when astronomical observations, "shooting" the horizon, and ascertaining the airplane's speed and drift are, to put it mildly, difficult.

In crossing the Himalaya the cardinal requirement is to attain a sufficiently great altitude. There are three aspects of such an undertaking to be considered:

(1) Crossing the mountains by flying through the passes or gorges or by passage over the main range and avoidance of the high peaks.

(2) Flying over the highest peaks, including Mt. Everest, which is 29,002 feet, and Mt. Kanchenjunga, which is almost as high.

(3) Making a landing on the ranges.

According to Dr. Kellas¹ the main range could be crossed at an altitude of 23,000 to 25,000 feet by avoiding the peaks that are over 24,000 feet high, of which, so far as is known, there are about eighty. Further, by utilizing passes or gorges transit could be made at a still lower elevation—not over 19,000 feet. These altitudes can be reached by present-day airplanes. There are a great many airplanes used by the British and the other Allied nations that have a "ceiling" (maximum altitude attainable by the plane) of approximately 30,000 feet with the usual military load; and the flight across the Himalaya through the gorges and passes would not be considered more difficult than the flights made daily over the enemy's barrage fire, where in addition every cloud may hide a squadron of enemy fighting planes. It certainly would not be as difficult as was the flight of the squadron of Italian S. V. A. single-motored biplanes that, under the command of Major Gabriele d'Annunzio on August 10, 1918, flew from Venice to Vienna, a trip which involved more than two hours' flying over the Alps.

The mountaineering aviator will doubtless not be satisfied with anything short of a flight over Mt. Everest itself, and it is therefore of interest to compare the height of that mountain above sea-level (about 29,000 feet) with the greatest altitudes hitherto attained by airplanes. Last September Capt. Schroeder, U. S. A., established a record of 28,900 feet at Dayton, Ohio, and on January 2 of the present year Capt. Lang, of the British Army, with a companion, rose to a height of 30,500 feet above Ipswich, England; the altitude record to date.

To carry out the project of flying over Mt.

¹A. M. Kellas: The Possibility of Aerial Reconnaissance in the Himalaya, *Geographical Journal*, London, Vol. 51, 1918, pp. 374-389.

Everest and Mt. Kanchenjunga it will be necessary to build special airplanes. It is of little value from a military viewpoint to have a plane with a ceiling of 35,000 feet unless it can carry guns and munitions and the pilot can patrol for about two hours. In addition, the machine must have a maximum equipment of safety to enable the pilot to make vertical turns, to do the "roll," the "falling leaf," the "Imberman turn," the "nose dive," the "loop," and other similar maneuvers that may be necessary in the course of an aerial flight; the machine must also have a very high horse-power motor to insure maximum speed.

The explorer can dispense with machine guns and ammunition, although he should carry a gun for protection in case he lands away from his starting point. He can also dispense with one hour's fuel, and the construction of the machine can be lighter. But these two considerations should come last. The greatest saving in weight will be in having a smaller motor—and correspondingly less fuel and tankage.

The writer discusses the effects of the low temperatures that would be encountered over the Himalaya, and cites his reasons for believing that "the solution of the problem of flying in cold weather consists largely in providing suitable clothing for the aviator."

With regard to the physiological effects of great altitudes, concerning which so much conflicting information has been published, Mr. Woodhouse makes the important point that "the aviator has the advantage over the mountain climber that he can start out in perfect physical condition and can accomplish the entire journey in a few hours, whereas it would take the mountain climber days or weeks."

Finally comes the question of making landings on the mountains.

Landing airplanes on such surfaces as the Himalaya may be expected to present, and starting again, will be mainly a matter of skill and organization. A specially made airplane for flying at high altitudes may not have a speed of more than 75 or 80 miles an hour and would have a very low landing speed. It would also be a very light machine and, if possessing a margin of power, could rise from a flat clearance of from 400 to 500 feet. In preliminary flights the aviator could drop tents, bags of food and equipment, and spare parts on a selected spot near the place where he intended to land. Dropping these things from an airplane would not be difficult. It was done repeatedly by the British aviators at Kut. Italian aviators also dropped bread and provisions on the mountains for their forces which had been cut off from their lines of communication and had exhausted their supplies. The aviators carried sufficient food and provisions to last them many days.

Having carried and dropped all the equipment necessary, the aviator could then attempt the landing.



AN AERIAL PHOTOGRAPH—THE BEST MEANS OF SHOWING COMMUNICATION FACILITIES

USES OF AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHY

BEFORE the signing of the armistice the photographic branch of our air service had reached a stage of development little known outside of military circles. Beginning in the fall of 1917, with a single school of aerial photography at Langley Field, we had within a year four schools which had graduated 2300 men, while 700 were still in training. There are, besides, 2000 airplane pilots and observers who have had complete instruction in aerial photography.

Writing in *Flying* for April, Captain M. A. Kinney, Jr., states that our camera men are able to make as many as 90 per cent. "good" pictures at altitudes of 6000 feet. These men have also learned how to make accurate "mosaics" by triangulation. With the K-1 camera they can in one continuous trip at an altitude of 10,000 feet take enough exposures to cover an area of about 200 square miles. This is photographic mapping by wholesale! The various photographs, gathered as the result of a mapping trip, can be pieced together in an accurate mosaic by an absolute method of triangulation. When the map is completed it may be turned over to trained draftsmen, who trace it, and by a system of interpretation, work in woodlands,

marshes, cultivated areas, houses, and roads. The labor of years in old-fashioned map-surveying is thus reduced to hours. Captain Kinney suggests several directions in which this aerial map-making may be turned to good advantage in our commercial and industrial life:

An interesting field for aerial photography that suggests itself for successful commercial development is the mapping of small areas for real-estate projects or proposed industrial sites. It is a well-known fact, that where new buildings are to cover large areas there never are good maps of plant and neighboring territory. Because of the lack of good maps, sometimes three or four months of valuable time must be lost before grading operations can be commenced. Say, the area for real estate or industrial development is forty square miles in size. By aerial photography a map just as accurate as that produced by the surveyor and far more comprehensive can be made available within forty-eight hours after the flight to take the exposures. This in itself is proof positive that aerial photography can be made a wonderful asset to the ordinary business man.

Aerial photography will be of especially great value in forestry work. Months and even years of time are now being spent by so-called timber cruisers who travel through forests with pedometer and pack mule to make rough surveys. Their reports naturally can't be very accurate. Think

on the other hand how very valuable a large photographic map accurately scaled on which practically every bush and tree is shown of a large tract of wood, would be to the owner.

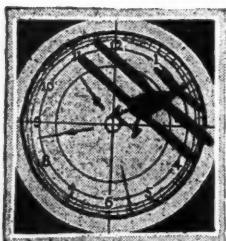
A mosaic of such a forest would show at a glance all virgin tracts of young trees which could not be considered of commercial value, all bush-land, fire tracts, so-called "dead-lake" areas, etc. We have even specially trained men who by close study of foliage as shown on the photographs can tell what species of tree predominate in the area. Also by means of oblique photographs as adjuncts to those taken vertically one can determine the general height of the trees and their denseness. From this one can see that a concern with photographic data such as that obtained by aeroplane and contemplating the purchase of certain areas could estimate quite closely the number of feet of lumber that could be obtained from the tracts and know what obstacles would be met in cutting and transporting the timber.

Railroad valuation suggests another extensive use for aerial photography. It is a fact that all large railroads spend thousands of dollars yearly for the hire of crews of civil engineers who

spend all their time making valuation surveys. These jobs extend into years and by the time they have finished the valuation of a certain section a good part of their data is obsolete because of changes and improvements. I know, for example, of one road that for six years has been trying to get a complete valuation report by the survey method of 200 miles of its property and though six years have passed since the work was begun only 100 miles have been covered. A large number of changes can occur in six years, so one can see just how really inadequate a report of this kind is to a railroad company.

On the other hand, an aeroplane traveling above the right of way could quickly cover any section desired and map out not only the railroad property, but also all land for a half mile on each side of the tracks. All telephone poles, ties, waste material, signal apparatus, culverts, crossings, bridges, etc., would be shown and the copies of the linear maps would be of great convenience not alone as a valuation report easily visualized but of untold benefit to various departments in checking up material and equipment along the right of way. Such maps could easily be kept up-to-date by periodical re-mapping trips.

A MACHINE-GUN CAMERA



TARGET PRACTICE WITH
MACHINE-GUN CAMERA

America's photographic manufacturing companies from a purely patriotic motive. "This gun camera, as brought to its present state, is absolutely American in theory, design and manufacture, and we are proud of it," he says. "It is only another of the unexpected developments of war work and its future use in peace times is unlimited."

The American type of gun camera, as finally perfected, weighs only thirteen pounds, with a lens barrel eight inches in length and two inches in diameter. It is attached directly to the gun, with its magazine of film in place of the cartridge magazine of the machine gun. It is so simple that in thirty seconds the film magazine can be substituted in the air for the cartridge magazine and the gun can be used in combat.

The camera takes 100 exposures of film on one loading, which is equivalent to 100

EXPLAINING the construction and use of the new gun camera in a recent number of the *New York Sun*, Capt. Harry J. Devine, who assisted in its development, tells us it was offered to the Government by one of

rounds of ammunition, and, using motion-picture film, its fire is made in "bursts," or continuous automatic shooting, as long as the trigger of the machine gun is pressed, thus simulating exactly the action of shooting in aerial combat. Each gun camera is provided with three magazines which are loaded in a dark room and which enable the training airman to "shoot" 300 times.

In order to obtain the automatic action of a machine gun, it was necessary to find a substitute for the exploding gases which operate the ejecting and cocking mechanism; and a hand-wound spring like a phonograph spring, attached to the five-inch film reel shaft through the shutter mechanism, was adopted. As in shooting in the air, it is necessary to aim the plane itself in order to bring the gun to bear on the enemy; skill in maneuvering, daring and nerve, and accuracy are essential to assure the destruction of the enemy and protection for the pilot, his observation records, and his plane. Shooting a machine gun in the air, therefore, is far different from similar target practice on the ground; and it was to test these necessary qualities in an aviator that the gun camera was used. Captain Devine says:

The recording of the shots is made through a glass plate called a graticule, placed in the barrel of the focal plane in contact with the film, which is marked with vertical and horizontal lines pass-

ing through the center and one small circle indicating the bull's eye of the target, while two larger circles indicate the outer field covered by the camera. These marks are impressed upon every film and consequently good and bad shots are recorded accurately in every phase of the aerial work.

The most recent development of the camera was the application of a timing attachment by which a watch face, attached outside the device, is photographed through reflection on the same sector of the film which records the shot. Thus, it records the image of the target, showing the exact location of the other aeroplane, and shows to the fraction of a second when the shot was made. By this means two, instead of one, aviators, may engage in practice combats, with a perfect record of their work and accurate register of the proficiency of each.

The tremendous speed at which machines are

flying and the position of the opposing machines at the instant of firing a bullet (making exposure), must be reckoned in the crediting of hits. The accompanying photograph shows a perfect bull's eye, for the plane photographed is flying directly into the field of the machine gun bullets, the margin of speed carrying it forward so as to be hit in a vital part.

This is only one of the many photographic marvels which Uncle Sam had up his sleeve for the Hun; and it is the lifting of the ban of censorship that enables us to learn of this remarkable invention. All the American Army and Navy flying fields were equipped with the gun camera, and 1400 were manufactured for the service up to the date of the Armistice.

AN ITALIAN DIPLOMAT'S MEMORIES OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT

SOME interesting reminiscences of Colonel Roosevelt are given in *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) by Signor Mayor des Planches, who was Italian Ambassador at Washington during the Roosevelt administration.

The former Ambassador recalls especially Mr. Roosevelt's fervent admiration of Julius Cæsar, whom he regarded as the greatest man the world had ever produced. When he requested Signor Mayor des Planches to transmit for him to the Italian historian, Guglielmo Ferrero, then on a visit to the United States, a personal invitation to be his guest at the White House, he indicated among the motives that made him wish to be better acquainted with the historian of Rome, the hope that he might induce Signor Ferrero to modify a little his judgment of Julius Cæsar, a judgment he considered to be unjust.

In conversation, Mr. Roosevelt was versatile, vivacious, ready, copious, and agreeable. Reminiscences, anecdotes, allusions, flowed from his lips uninterruptedly. After the diplomatic dinners at the White House, he would invite the Ambassador (not the ministers plenipotentiary, much less those of lower rank) into a small reception room to take coffee or to smoke. This room was soon called the "Café des Ambassadeurs," after the famous resort in Paris. On such occasions Roosevelt was not merely brilliant, he was scintillating. The different literatures, history, archaeology, and art, furnished the

material for his talk, and he set in motion all his arts to please, to fascinate, and to inspire admiration.

On the other hand, the Italian writer does not find that he was a really great orator, although he was an abundant speaker. His enunciation was somewhat labored, even in ordinary conversation his utterance was occasionally such as to give the impression that as a child he might have stammered and had later overcome this defect. At least this might have been inferred from the fact that certain words seemed to cost him an effort, and led him to contract sharply his facial muscles, showing his teeth, which were large, with a peculiar expression that was quickly seized upon by the caricaturists. "A pair of glasses over a set of teeth," as was said in France.

Therefore in public speaking the writer does not credit him with that even flow of well-phrased ideas which constitutes eloquence, nor that art, perhaps a trifle theatrical, of moving the emotions, that is possessed by William J. Bryan, and which can make the hearers pass in a few moments from tears to laughter, or vice versa. But he was always strong, often subtle, and being convinced himself he convinced others.

He had read much and still continued to do so; even during his Presidential term he found time for this. The writer also tells of his habit of reading aloud to his family in the evenings, commenting on what he had just read and chatting about it.

THE INTERNATIONAL LABOR MOVEMENT

IN *Le Correspondant* (Paris) of March 10th, M. Max Turmann sets forth clearly and exhaustively "The Origin and Progress of International Labor Legislation, down to the Assembling of the Peace Conference." The especial timeliness and importance of this study is intimated in the last phrase of the title.

The writer, a devoted Catholic, emphasizes the former leadership of the Church as protector of the small and weak, and the full share taken by his coreligionists, under Leo XIII's leadership, side by side with the militant Socialists, in the entire Internationalist Labor reform agitation,—which is hardly more than a half century old. This alliance is important in removing the prejudice against the entire agitation as a political and class propaganda.

This is a field in which the great growth of international markets and commerce makes radical action by any single power perilous, almost suicidal. To prohibit the labor of women, or introduce a legally limited eight-hour day, in Belgium or Switzerland, for example, without action on the part of France, might well bring prompt industrial and financial ruin upon the lesser state.

It was an Alsatian sociologist, M. Daniel Legrand, a reformer far ahead of his day, who in 1858 called for an international law as "the only means for bestowing desirable benefits, moral and material, upon the laboring class, without harming the manufacturers, and without disturbing competition between industries." The government of Switzerland, far in advance of other countries, sent out over Europe, in 1880, invitations to a general official conference—which were all but unanimously declined. A second invitation, in 1889, was no less generally accepted; "but, greedy to monopolize the glory of the action, which would be notable in world-history, William the Second announced his intention to have the conference assemble in Berlin, and the Swiss Government effaced itself before the pride of the German Emperor."

This Berlin Conference, of 1890, with its too ambitious program, accomplished almost nothing in direct results, but "it did effectively," to use Count de Mun's words, "make the social question, and particularly, recognition of the rights of the laborers, the order

of the day for the governments of Europe."

The problems of protection for minors and women, Sunday rest, and maximum length of the working day, had at least been taken up, and discussed, by the assembled representatives of the European governments.

The so-called international workingmen's "Congress" which met at Zurich in August, 1897, had of course no political basis, but was merely a gathering of the (comparatively few) friends of the movement. It was curiously composed of 165 Socialist delegates, 98 Catholics, and no others. This reveals the singular and limited nature of the agitation thus far. This Congress created a permanent Executive Committee, and vainly urged the European states to establish an international bureau of publication and information as to labor laws and conditions.

The similar unofficial Congress of Brussels, 1897, and especially of Paris, 1900 (at the time of the Exposition) brought together economists, statesmen, captains of industry, heads of labor unions, and others. The movement was broadening and gaining in force. National, religious, social barriers vanished for the time. In the Permanent Committee of the International Society, as organized at Paris, not merely the national societies but the governments, including the Papacy, were represented. The time for united political action seemed close at hand.

The Conference of Berne, May, 1905, of official delegates of the European nations, actually agreed on the first chapter of a code, to which "the plenipotentiaries of a great majority of the European powers affixed their signatures." Again the Swiss had been the pioneers, with the mistakes of 1890 as a warning, and were the hosts. A brief and modest program had been wisely arranged, and was successfully carried through. The "chapter" mentioned merely prohibits all night work by women whenever ten or more hands are employed. There were indeed various exceptions, some temporary, some for industries only carried on at certain seasons, like canning, making of preserves, etc. But the principle became universal in its application.

This was, of course, real international legislation, economic, hygienic, and no less moral in purpose. It committed the powers to special care of the women, and in general

of the weak and helpless. Furthermore, it proved, that private individuals without political power, could force from an unwilling official class, attention, interest, and finally action, in a righteous and needful reform. The signatory powers were Germany, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Great Britain, Italy, Luxembourg, Holland, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland (alphabetically arranged in French).

With the constant pressure of the "Internationale" agitators, a third official Conference was brought about in 1913. It met at Berne in mid-September—less than a year before the unforeseen world-war befell.

Here again only two limited problems were seriously considered:

(1) Night work for juveniles. The rule there decreed is, up to 14 years, none; from 14 to 16, only in a special crisis not recurrent nor to be foreseen. The other exceptions are merely for the next few years, until certain industries can be adjusted to the new requirements. No labor harmful to health is included therein. (2) The maximum day for women, and for boys under 16. That is fixed at 10 hours—or 10½ at most, in a total week of 60 hours. This was in various countries a radical reform. In Belgium, for instance, there had been no limit, except one of twelve hours daily for women under 21 and boys under 16.

All governments were urged, also, to ordain suitable breaks in any labor day exceeding six hours. Even the exceptional extra service, at urgent need, was limited to an annual total of 180 hours—this only in certain industries, and never in the case of workers under 16.

"Such is the second chapter of the international labor code, or rather, such it would be to-day, had not William II unchained war;" for the convention had not received official ratification by the home governments when the great storm broke.

That ratification may be part of the special recommendations of the Labor Commission, now sitting in Paris, to the Peace Conference itself. M. Turmann calls effective attention to the illuminating fact that this Commission is presided over by Mr. Gompers of the American Federation of Labor, although prior to the war the United States had held aloof from European efforts to internationalize labor legislation.

Every serious student of sociology, or of human progress generally, will find a careful study of this entire essay most profitable. Not less encouraging is the story as an example of the moderate success long ago attained in united action for the common good by practically all the states of Western and Central Europe. It is a happy foreshadowing of the larger future.

GOVERNMENT STATISTICS IN WAR-TIME, AND AFTER

THAT knowledge is power and ignorance is weakness was illustrated in more than one way by events of the late war. A conspicuous illustration is cited by Prof. Wesley C. Mitchell, president of the American Statistical Association, in an article published in the *Monthly Labor Review* (Washington). When the war began the Federal Government possessed twenty or more statistical agencies, the weaknesses and especially the lack of coördination of which had been keenly realized even in peace time. These agencies were quite inadequate to the task of supplying the data needed under war conditions concerning national resources of various kinds, and the business of putting the nation on a war footing was seriously delayed by the lack of this statistical knowledge. Hence, says Professor Mitchell:

The Council of National Defense, the Food Administration, the Fuel Administration, the Shipping Board, the War Trade Board, the Railway Administration, and the War Industries Board, sooner or later set up each a new and independent statistical agency to meet its especial needs. The War Department and the Navy Department followed suit. And these agencies, like the war boards which created them, had to be manned with people inexperienced in Government work and unfamiliar with Washington.

Yet the statistical work of the war boards as a whole showed precisely the same defect in organization as the work of the old statistical bureaus, and showed that fault in an aggravated degree. Each new agency worked by itself for a separate board. Hence there was much duplication of effort, and at the same time many important fields remained unworked; the results reached by different agencies could not be readily compared or combined; and the cost was needlessly great. Further, the energy of the new statistical agencies and the haste in which they worked magnified a minor fault of the old system

to large proportions. These new agencies wanted to get their fundamental data from the original sources; so they sent out questionnaires to business men in a veritable flood. Many manufacturing plants got elaborate papers which they were asked to fill out and return by the next mail in tens and in dozens. Frequently, different questionnaires covered nearly the same ground, and usually they required not a little investigation within the plant to collect the data asked for. Considerable expense was incurred and serious irritation was caused throughout the country by this obvious failure of organization in Washington.

This questionnaire evil brought back a flood of complaints, echoes of which reached the responsible heads of the war boards. The efficiency of economic mobilization seemed threatened; that was a more serious matter than the waste of public funds.

Accordingly, steps were taken to remedy an evil which, though accentuated by the war, had always existed in the Government's machinery for gathering statistics. First the statistical agencies connected with the Shipping Board, the War Trade Board and the War Industries Board were brought under a single head. Then the director of these organizations was made chairman of the statistical committee of the Department of Labor. Finally there was formed a Central Bureau of Planning and Statistics, with headquarters in the new building of the Interior Department.

The Central Bureau set up a clearing house of statistical activities, appointed contract men to keep in touch with the statistical work of all the war boards and certain of the old departments, and began to supervise the issuing of questionnaires. When the armistice was signed we were in a fair way to develop for the first time a systematic organization of Federal statistics.

For the first few weeks after the fighting stopped it seemed as if what had been gained in statistical organization might be lost almost at once. The rapid demobilization of the war boards threatened to sweep with it their statistical bureaus, or to scatter the new statistical bureaus among the old departments and leave us again in statistical confusion—making figures in abundance but having no general statistical plan. But at a critical moment President Wilson approved a plan by which the Central Bureau of Planning and Statistics was made the single statistical agency to serve the American conferees at the peace table. Thus, the Central Bureau was granted a reprieve of some months. It still remains to be seen whether this bureau or some successor serving the same centralizing functions will be made permanent.

Parenthetically, we may record here a fact not mentioned by Professor Mitchell; *viz.*, that the new bureau has been issuing since last September a weekly bulletin known as

the *Weekly Statistical News*, which circulates among Government offices but not in the outside world, as the material it contains is of a more or less confidential nature. The objects of this bulletin are described as follows in a recent issue:

1. To prevent duplication in statistical work by giving to the statistical branches of each department early information concerning the plans of all other departments for gathering statistics.
2. To give all departments early information about work completed elsewhere.
3. To promote the use, as far as practicable, of uniform classifications and methods in the statistical work throughout the Government, so that results may, as far as possible, be comparable.

As stated above, the future of the Central Bureau of Planning and Statistics is still uncertain. Congressional action will be necessary to make it the permanent centralizing and coördinating agency which the statistical branches of the Government have always so badly needed.

Regardless of the fate of this particular organization, the war has undoubtedly brought permanent improvement to statistical methods and ideals at Washington. This is illustrated by the fact that

The Secretary of Commerce has asked the president of the American Economic Association and the president of the Statistical Association to appoint each a committee of three to advise with the Director of the Census on matters of statistical principle and on the selection of statistical experts. This arrangement, it is hoped, will be no formal affair, but a working plan by which the producers and the consumers of statistics can coöperate effectively to improve the products in which both parties are interested. To provide the two committees with working facilities, an office and a secretary have been furnished them by the Director of the Census.

The writer points out the desirability of continuing certain new statistical activities which the Government undertook in response to the demands of the war.

The war boards found it necessary to obtain monthly figures of stocks of certain commodities on hand and monthly figures of the production of other commodities. These figures were collected in a variety of ways, by the Census Office, by trade organizations like the Tanners' Council, or by sections of the war boards themselves. The results are of interest not only to the industries concerned, but also to the Government and to the general public. The permanent maintenance of this service, perhaps in a modified form, is a measure that promises to command increasing support from business men. If systematically extended this work might well develop into a continuing census of production, simple in form, inexpensive, but of great value in forecasting business conditions and directing public policy.

THE MUSIC OF THE CZECHOSLOVAKS

THE MUSIC OF THE CZECHOSLOVAKS

There is a saying, "Where there is a Czech—there you hear music." The first of the recorded musical relics of the Czechs is a song in honor of the Bohemian ruler, King Wenceslas, who was proclaimed a saint after his tragic death and became the symbol of patriotism and the protector of the Czech Catholic Church. It was in his reign that the first warfare occurred between the Czechs and the Germans (921-935 A.D.) which ended with the assassination of the Czech ruler. This song is a spiritual folksong and is still sung in the churches of Bohemia. After John Huss was burned at the stake in the year 1415, the righteous indignation of his followers was voiced musically in the great battle hymn of the Czechs, beginning, "Ye Warriors Who for God Are Fighting." It is said that whenever this was sung terror and confusion were sown among the enemies of the Hussites. Another song that was a part of the service of the Bohemian Brethren is the beautiful evening hymn of the Moravians, "When Peaceful Night."

Although the government of Ferdinand II. tried to destroy all the musical art of Bohemia by burning the choral and hymn books, the Jesuits took over for church use many of the secular Czech folk-songs and the melodies were thus preserved.

Mr. Ladislav Urban, in "The Music of Bohemia," writes of Czech folk-music:

The Czech folk-songs are of a lively, rhythmic, dance-like character; often they are real dances. The Slovak folk-songs contrast with the Czech tunes by a more poetic form, a freer rhythm, and a tendency to introduce church modes. Singing is the chief passion of the Slovaks. Nothing will find its way so surely to the heart of the Slovak people as a well-sung song. An old peasant woman once complained to a friend of mine that her son was a useless, disappointing fellow. "What was the matter?" inquired my friend; "did he drink or would he not work?" "Oh, no," said the old woman, "but nothing will make him sing. It's a great misfortune."

The Polka was invented about the year 1830 by a country girl of Bohemia. . . . Besides the Polka, there is another Czech folk-dance with characteristic wild rhythm, "The Furiant," which means a boasting farmer. Dvořák in his First Symphony introduces this dance.

Bedřich Smetana (1824-1884) laid the foundations of modern Czech musical culture.

In the last period of his creation Smetana expressed his love and admiration for his country and its history in a cycle called *My Country*, consisting of six charming symphonic poems. . . .

THE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE OF COLORADO
Greeley, Colo.

Warriors who for God are fighting, and for His divine law. Pray that His help be vouchsafed you;

With trust un - to Him draw; With Him you

con - quer, in your foes in - spire awe; with Him you

con - quer, in your foes in - spire awe.

THE HUSSITE BATTLE HYMN OF THE CZECHS

With this work the composer reached his goal. No greater tribute to his success is needed than Liszt's exclamation upon hearing of Smetana's death—"He was a genius."

Anton Dvořák (1841-1904) the best known of the Czech composers in this country was the son of a village butcher. Zdenko Fibich (1850-1900) was the creator of modern melodramas—recitations with music. The greatest genius in modern Czech musical art is Vítězslav Novák.

A special analysis would be necessary to discover Novák's melodic and harmonic richness in chamber music, piano compositions, and especially in songs. His *Pan* op. 43, a poem in tones for piano solo, is one of the most marvelous works of modern piano literature.

Another Czech modernist is Joseph Suk (1874), the second violinist in the famous Bohemian String Quartet. He is a composer of absolute subjectivity with inclination to mysticism; a real poet in both the complicated symphonic forms and in short piano sketches.

Other Czech musicians favorably known in this country are Otakar Sevcik, familiar

to students of the violin and Jan Kubelík the celebrated violinist. Two world-famous singers, Emmy Destinn, the dramatic soprano and Karl Burian, the tenor, are Czechs. With this slight sketch of the musical life of the Czechoslovaks, it is helpful to understand the various terms now in use—"Bohemian, Czech, Slovak and Czechoslovak." They all mean the same nation, that of the most western branch of the Slavic race in Europe.

"Czech" is the Slav name of the Slav people and language in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia. Slovaks are that people who live in the

northwestern part of Hungary, called Slovakia, which with Bohemia forms the present republic and nation of the Czechoslovaks. . . . The Czechoslovak nation has received political recognition by the Allied nations and the United States, which has made their dream of political independence come true. The people of Czechoslovak origin in the United States being free and unrestricted under the Stars and Stripes, were able to assist their old country in fighting for freedom. Feeling that this help was possible only in a country like our great democratic nation, they gratefully try to reciprocate by bringing to the American people the best of Czechoslovak culture.¹

¹The Music of Bohemia. By Ladislav Urban. With catalogue of Czech music. Mailed on receipt of postage by The Czechoslovak Publicity Bureau, Mr. James Keating, Hotel Algonquin, New York.

MRS. AMELIA BARR, THE NOVELIST

WITH the death of Amelia Huddleston Barr, on March 10, only a few days before the completion of her eighty-eighth year, there passed from the world of the living a most remarkable woman, one whose indomitable spirit and brilliant career must remain an inspiration for years to come, to men and women who are striving against odds to lead brave and useful lives.

She was born on March 29, in the year 1831, at the town of Ulverston in Lancashire. In her autobiography, "All The Days of My Life" (Appletons), published in 1915, she wrote that "her soul came with her . . . an eager soul impatient for the loves and joys, the struggles and triumphs of the world." Her family, the Huddlestons, had always been ecclesiastical in their tendencies. Her father, William Henry Huddleston, was a Methodist parson. Mrs. Barr wrote of him, that he was a born evangelist who loved to go among shepherds and fishermen teaching the Gospel. At nineteen, after a happy girlhood spent at Shipley, Yorkshire, Riding, among the religious influences of her father's parsonage and in the wholesome atmosphere of girls' schools, she married Robert Barr, a young Glasgow business man.

A short time after her marriage, her husband's mercantile business failed and there began a long period of wandering and of physical and moral trials, which disciplined her spirit and prepared her for the work that lay beyond. The Barrs came to America and settled in Texas. Later they removed to Galveston, where in 1867 the yellow fever robbed her of her husband and the two

living sons. When in the following December her ninth child, a son, was born, he died in a few days from the effects of her own illness with the fever. She undertook to establish a boarding-house, but failed, and with her three daughters that remained to her out of a family of nine children, came on to New York in 1868, to take up a new and untried life. Infinitely saddened and with all small delights of life vanished, she builded her future from the treasures of moral and spiritual values. Beginning at the age of thirty-nine, a time in life when most women relax their energy, she achieved a notable financial, personal, and literary success.

In the years that followed she wrote over sixty successful novels, numerous essays and short stories, social and domestic papers—a vast collection of pot-boilers of which she in later life forgot even the names. She did not consider herself a poetess, but she wrote hundreds of poems. They were facile, tender and sympathetic. As she said, it was easy for her to "versify a good thought and tune it to the Common Chord—the C. Major of this life." Her work went around the world for this reason, and for fifteen years she made more than a thousand dollars a year from her poems alone. Because of her large output, she was forced to use two pen-names as well as her own. Some of her best work was done under the fictitious names and she received no credit for it.

She believed in religious thought and aspiration and so powerful were the spiritual forces that moved through her body that no amount of fatigue or illness could slacken her

furious energy. For years she sat at her desk eight hours a day. At eighty-two she wrote:

I have made my living for forty-two years in a stooping posture, but I am perfectly erect, and I ascend the stairs as rapidly as I ever did. . . . my life is still sweet and busy and my children talk of what I am going to do in the future as if I were immortal. . . . I have lived, I have loved, I have worked, and at eighty-two I only ask that the love and the work continue while I live.

Deeply religious in temperament, her faith lighted all the vicissitudes of her early days and shone as a serene star over the achievements of her later years. She believed that God still spoke directly to man. At eighty-two she solemnly declared that she had known the following truth all her life long:

Whoso has felt the Spirit of the Highest,
Cannot confound, nor doubt Him, nor deny;
Yea, with one voice, O World, though thou
deniest,
Stand thou on that side, for on this, am I

Among her best-known novels are "Jan Vedder's Wife," "The Bow of Orange Ribbon," "The Lion's Whelp," "Remember the

Alamo," and "The Beads of Tasmer." Her style was simple and unaffected; she wrote for the hearts of men and women and succeeded in gaining their love and admiration the world over. Turning the pages of her books, one finds that perhaps in no other woman writer of her time has the instinct for pure narrative been strong.

Her range of acquaintanceship with life was immense and she gave with lavish hands whatsoever she thought her readers would appreciate. Of her writing, she wrote in old age:



MRS. BARR AT EIGHTEEN



MRS. AMELIA H. BARR, WHO BEGAN WRITING AT THIRTY-NINE AND PRODUCED MORE THAN SIXTY NOVELS

For the woman within, if she be of noble strain, is never content with what she has attained; she unceasingly presses forward in the lively hope of some better way, or some more tangible truth. . . . I write mainly for the kindly race of women. I am their sister and in no way exempt from their sorrowful lot. I have drunk the cup of their limitations to the dregs, and if my experiences can help any sad or doubtful woman to outleap her own shadow, and to stand bravely in the sunshine, to meet her destiny whatever it may be, I shall have done well.

The two closing stanzas of her poem "Help" synthesize the essence of her undaunted courage:

But, oh, thank God! There never has come
The hour that makes the bravest quail:
No matter how weary my feet and hands,
God never has suffered my heart to quail.

So the folded hands take up their work,
And the weary feet pursue their way;
And all is clear when the good heart cries,
"Be brave!—to-morrow's another day."



THE NEW BOOKS

RECONSTRUCTION AND WAR'S AFTERMATH

Labor and Reconstruction in Europe. By Elisha M. Friedman. E. P. Dutton and Company. 216 pp. \$2.50.

Mr. Friedman, who had already brought out a useful volume on "American Problems of Reconstruction," gives in this new book a body of important facts regarding the reconstruction commissions that have been formed in almost every European country, neutral as well as belligerent. He treats in detail the various aspects of the labor problem now confronting Great Britain and Germany. Mr. Friedman's work is the more valuable in that he has no panacea to offer, and is the advocate of no particular labor policy. He makes it his concern to present the facts of the situation, and to pass on to his readers the burden of formulating a definite scheme. An introduction is supplied by Secretary William B. Wilson of the Department of Labor.

Facts About France. By E. Saillens. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 306 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

A handbook of useful information, prepared by a French writer who served for nearly three years as interpreter to the British Expeditionary Force in France, and vouched for by Emile Hovelaque, Inspector General of Public Instruction.

Alsace-Lorraine Since 1870. By Barry Cerf. The Macmillan Company. 190 pp. With map. \$1.50.

A straightforward statement of many facts that have been more or less obscure and inaccessible to American readers. Although Captain Cerf has made use of a great number of French books and articles, the most convincing part of his discussion is based on German sources. It is hardly necessary to say that Mr. Cerf's argument reaches the conclusion that Alsace-Lorraine should be restored to France by the Treaty of Peace. Captain Cerf is a member of the faculty of the University of Wisconsin, and his methods of dealing with historical materials are thoroughly scientific.

Pan-Prussianism. By Charles William Super. The Neale Publishing Company. 306 pp. \$1.25.

This relentless analysis of German "Kultur" was written during the heat of conflict, and its expressions are not in every instance remarkable for restraint. Nevertheless, it is the fruit of sincere conviction, and the author is certainly justified in his contention that a book "based upon records more fully attested than are nine-tenths of those that are used in writing history or biography, cannot be called a hate book."

550

Prussian Political Philosophy. By Westel W. Willoughby. D. Appleton and Company. 202 pp. \$1.50.

A scientific analysis of the principles and implications of the Prussian system. Professor Willoughby has gone through the speeches and writings of Prussia's statesmen, publicists, preachers, poets, and university professors, and over against expressions of Prussian political theory, he gives a brief but well-considered description of American political ideals, so that the two opposing systems may be clearly discerned.

The German Myth. By Gustavus Myers. Boni and Liveright. 156 pp. \$1.

Almost the only German claim that is still widely accepted in this country is that of social progress. For many years before the war, other nations, well aware of bad social conditions existing within their own borders, were taught to look to Germany as a sort of social paradise where all faults in the social structure had been eliminated. This little book boldly challenges the Teutonic boast. From German official documents it shows that Germany, so far from doing away with bad conditions, has all along suffered severely from underpaid labor, the industrial enslavement of women and children, bad housing conditions, underfeeding, great infant mortality, and extensive pauperism.

The Resurrected Nations. By Isaac Don Levine. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 309 pp. Ill. \$1.60.

The day's news about the peoples made free by the Great War is still far in advance of the knowledge that most Americans have concerning these minor nationalities of Europe and Asia. A volume of this kind, giving brief histories of these various peoples with enough of their respective backgrounds to make clear their claims to nationality, is a real boon to the newspaper reader of to-day. It supplies him with a working knowledge that cannot easily be had in any other way. The book treats of nine European nationalities — Czechoslovakia, Jugo-Slavia, Albania, Ukraine, Poland, Lithuania, Lettonia, Estonia, and Finland—and nine Asiatic-Arabia, Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia, Assyria, Kurdestan, Armenia, Georgia, and Azerbaijan.

The Playground of Satan. By Beatrice Baskerville. W. J. Watt and Co. 308 pp. \$1.50.

The story of Poland's part in the Great War, told in the form of a novel, Her tragic experiences, between two armies, are vividly described.

America, Save the Near East! By Abraham Mitrie Rihbany. Boston: The Beacon Press. 164 pp. \$1.

An appeal from an enlightened Syrian, the author of "A Far Journey" and other widely read works, for America's aid in the rebuilding of the Asiatic Turkish provinces and especially the author's native land.

Our Allies and Enemies in the Near East. By Jean Victor Bates. E. P. Dutton and Company. 226 pp. \$5.

The descriptions given in this book of Rumanian and Bulgarian regions are vivid and picturesque. Miss Bates has not ventured into the political or diplomatic aspects of the subjects, but has evolved her book entirely from personal knowledge, based on long continued intimacy with the peoples of whom she writes.

The Rise of Nationality in the Balkans. By R. W. Seton-Watson. E. P. Dutton and Company. 307 pp. Ill. \$5.

An account of the successive struggles of Balkan peoples for deliverance from Turkey and the establishment of the modern Balkan States. Dr. Seton-Watson is one of the leading British authorities in this field, the author of eight important books dealing with Balkan and Eastern European politics.

The Firebrand of Bolshevism. By Princess Catherine Radziwill. Boston: Small, Maynard and Company. 293 pp. Ill. \$2.

A connected account, from a Russian viewpoint, of the German spy plots that culminated in Russia's withdrawal from the war.

One Year at the Russian Court. By Renée Elton Maud. John Lane Company. 222 pp. Ill. \$3.

A young Englishwoman's observations of the Court of the Czar during the period of the Russo-Japanese war. Mrs. Maud had many Russian relatives in the government and full opportunities to study the imperial family and those who surrounded them.

Ivan Speaks. By Thomas Whittemore. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company. 47 pp. 75 cents.

A translation from the Russian of sayings overheard by a Russian nurse working among soldiers at the front during the first three years of the war. These utterances afford an unconscious revelation of the Russian mind.

The Diary of a German Soldier. By Feldwebel C —. Alfred A. Knopf. 251 pp. \$1.50.

A volume of curious documentary interest, originally written in French by a German non-commissioned officer, and published at Paris last year. The writer seems to have been a man of unusual intelligence, and in everything but name to have enjoyed the prestige of a commissioned officer. His writings have no special literary

value, but are interesting as a frank and unpretentious narrative of events during the first two years of the war. His book is noteworthy as a confirmation of many of the charges of German brutality.

Fighting Germany's Spies. By French Strother. Doubleday, Page and Company. 275 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

A revelation of the propagandist campaign started in this country by Von Bernstorff and his aides. Mr. Strother relates the activities of several of the best known German spies at work in this country, and his facts and documents have been verified through the Department of Justice at Washington. Much of the material is now given for the first time in connected and related form.

The Eagle's Eye. By William J. Flynn and Courtney Riley Cooper. Prospect Press. 377 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

A story of the late Imperial German Government's spies and intrigues in America, as told by the retired Chief of the United States Secret Service, and "novelized" by Courtney R. Cooper.

Religion and the War. Edited by E. Hershey Sneath. Yale University Press. 178 pp. \$1.

A group of noteworthy essays by members of the faculty of the Yale School of Religion. These are some of the topics: "Moral and Spiritual Forces in the War," by Dean Charles R. Brown; "The Ministry and the War," by Henry Hallam Tweedy; "Foreign Missions and the War, Today and To-morrow," by Harlan P. Beach; "The War and Social Work," by William B. Bailey; "The War and Church Unity," by Williston Walker; and "The Religious Basis of World Reorganization," by E. Hershey Sneath.

Christian Internationalism. By William Pierson Merrill. The Macmillan Company. 193 pp. \$1.50.

Dr. Merrill, who is pastor of one of the leading Presbyterian churches in New York City, discusses in this volume some of the more vital religious problems suggested by and growing out of the war. Among his chapter headings are: "Constructive Proposals for an International Order," "Problems Confronting Internationalism," "Christian Principles Underlying Internationalism," "The War and Internationalism," and "The Church and Internationalism."

The Flaming Crucible. By André Fribourg. The Macmillan Company. 185 pp. \$1.50.

A remarkable record of "The Faith of the Fighting Men," written by a French schoolmaster who served his country valiantly in the shock of battle.

The Disabled Soldier. By Douglas C. McMurtrie. The Macmillan Company. 232 pp. Ill. \$2.

The wonderful provision made for rehabilitating the disabled soldiers, sailors and marines

of this war is here described in detail. In the past these wounded heroes in many cases have been condemned to lives of idleness and uselessness. Now they are equipped for self-support, and this book gives full particulars of the vocational training by which these men are fitted for occupations that they can follow profitably in spite of their handicaps. Mr. McMurtrie is Director of the Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men, which was established in the spring of 1917 as the first specialized trade school in the United States for the disabled man. It is a real boon to the wounded veteran.

Old Glory and Verdun. By Elizabeth Frazer. Duffield and Company. 303 pp. \$1.50.

This volume contains an interesting account of Miss Frazer's work with the American Red Cross in the War Zone. Miss Frazer also relates her experience with the Americans and French at Château-Thierry.

The War-Workers. By E. M. Delafield. Alfred A. Knopf. 285 pp. \$1.50.

An amusing satire in novel form on a certain well-known type of woman war worker.

MEN AND MACHINES

Instincts in Industry. By Ordway Tead. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 222 pp. \$1.40.

An unusual psychological study of industrial activities. The author has simply tried to find out what the worker is thinking about and what his aspirations are. He believes that as we view human conduct in the light of an understanding of the instinctive mainsprings of action that conduct tends to become not only more intelligible, but more amenable to control. He therefore analyzes the ten basic instincts on which human life and conduct rest, showing they affect the worker's relation to his job, and how each must be studied and used in the task of working out sound relations between the employer and the employed. His whole book is in line with the suggestions made by Professor Irving Fisher, of Yale, which are summarized in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month." In fact, Mr. Tead's book was cited by Professor Fisher as confirming his own views.

Creative Impulse in Industry. By Helen Marot. E. P. Dutton & Company. 146 pp. \$1.50.

Another book in partial answer to the questions raised by Mr. Tead and Professor Fisher. The Bureau of Educational Experiments had Miss Marot make a survey of industrial education. This book is the result. It shows that among free workers productive force really depends on satisfaction of the creative impulse. By recognizing this impulse in the worker we may get industrial efficiency without Prussianization.

How to Choose the Right Vocation. By Holmes W. Merton. Funk & Wagnalls Company. 302 pp. \$1.50.

In the choice of a vocation for the individual there is undoubtedly a need of expert counsel. So far as such counsel can be had without personal guidance, it is given by this book, which first presents a practical analysis and description of man's vocational mental abilities and characteristics; second, suggests many interesting mental tests which enable the reader to self-chart his vocational aptitude, and finally cites the different mental abilities and characteristics which are specifically required in each of the 1400 distinctive vocations, including 263 professions, arts and sciences, 344 commercial enterprises and businesses, and 700 trades and skilled

vocations. This volume, in short, is a manual of vocational self-measurement.

The Real Business of Living. By James H. Tufts. Henry Holt & Company. 476 pp. \$1.50.

To conduct successfully the business of living, that is, to do one's work in the world, depends on a multitude of social, economic and political factors. In this volume Professor Tufts has attempted a comprehensive survey of these. He shows the origins of our institutions and standards, of our business and political ideals, and how these are expressed in law and government. He further points out the tasks and responsibilities, public spirit, fair dealing and development of coöperation which make up the average citizen's round of duty to his country and town.

The Ethics of Coöperation. By James H. Tufts. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 73 pp. \$1.

A series of lectures delivered by Professor Tufts at the University of California on the Weinstock Foundation.

Application of Efficiency Principles. By George H. Shepard. The Engineering Magazine Company. 368 pp. \$3.

In this volume the author takes Mr. Harrington Emerson's statement of the principles of efficiency and shows how each of these principles can be practically applied. Wherever possible, he takes from his own experience or the work of others practical illustrations of the working of each principle from any field that can furnish a definite example, demonstrating its application. He then analyzes these applications in such a way that the reader can see clearly their relation to the fundamental principles.

Personal Efficiency. By Robert Grimshaw. The Macmillan Company. 218 pp. \$1.50.

A series of lectures delivered by Mr. Grimshaw at the New York University and elsewhere.

Everyday Efficiency. By Forbes Lindsay. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. 300 pp. \$1.25.

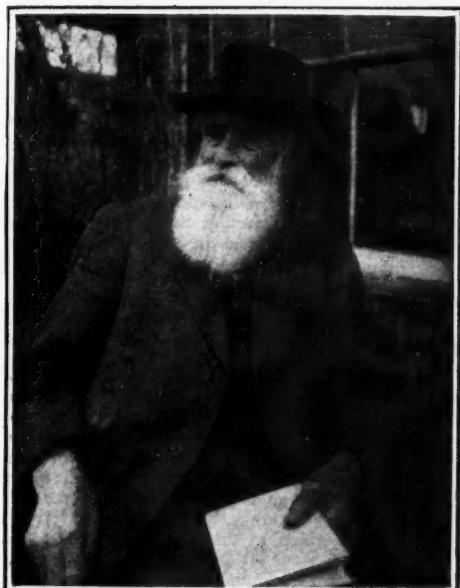
A practical guide to efficient living, written for the ordinary man and woman, and dedicated to Harrington Emerson. The material in the volume has been extensively used as a correspondence course.

The Selection and Training of the Business Executive. By Enoch Burton Gowin. 225 pp. \$1.50.

This book deals with a subject of vital interest to all corporation officials, especially those more

directly responsible for the personnel. The author gives particular attention to the corporations known as industrials, but public-utility and railroad officials will undoubtedly find many helpful suggestions in the book.

FOREST AND GARDEN



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JOHN BURROUGHS—A RECENT PORTRAIT

Field and Study. By John Burroughs. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 336 pp. Ill. \$1.50.

One of Mr. Burroughs' conclusions is comforting to busy country-dwellers. He writes: "After long experience I am convinced that the best place to study nature is at one's own home,—on the farm, in the mountains, on the plains, by the sea,—no matter where that may be. . . . The seasons bring to the door the great revolving cycle of wild life floral and faunal." His own gleanings make a most companionable book, one that overflows with the poetry of wild life, with reminiscences of the spring procession of birds, of orchard-secrets, and the joys and aspirations of our old friend, the striped chipmunk. Mr. Burroughs feels that man's present attitude toward nature is "one of the most, if not the most remarkable change in his mental and spiritual story in modern times." Of his own attitude he writes: "I never tire of contemplating the earth as it swims through space. As I near the time when I know these contemplations must cease, it is more and more in my thoughts—its beauty, its wonder, its meaning, and the grandeur of the voyage we are making on its surface. . . . Ground-room is cheap in heaven; there are

oceans of it to spare. The grouping of celestial bodies which we see are as of a flock of birds upon the same branch."

The Message of the Trees. By Maud Cuney Hare. The Cornhill Company. 190 pp. \$2.50.

A beautifully bound anthology of the tributes of writers to trees, with a foreword by William Stanley Braithwaite. The tree-testaments, both in prose and poetry, have been selected with rare discrimination, and the list of authors contains many famous names. Among them are John Burroughs, Madison Cawein, Vachel Lindsay, Joyce Kilmer, Richard Watson Gilder, and farther back, certain Elizabethans and great Victorians who worshiped at the oldest shrine in the world—the shrine of a tree. Lovers of trees who are going to watch the forth-putting of the new leaves will find the finest things in literature about trees in this volume.

Trees, Stars, and Birds. By Edward Lincoln Moseley. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 259 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

This volume is one of the attractive and useful text-books issued in the World Science Series. It is illustrated in colors from paintings by Louis Agassiz Fuertes, and has over three hundred reproductions in black and white from photographs and drawings. The bird plates in color will serve to identify all the common species. The language is about sixth or seventh-grade; the facts those any mature person will want to know. It could be used to advantage by summer schools for young people, Campfire Girls, Woodcraft League and like organizations.

The Book of the Home Garden. By Edith Loring Fullerton. D. Appleton & Co. 259 pp. Ill. \$2.50.

A competent guide to gardening written so simply that children can use it. The chapters originally appeared in the *Country Gentleman* under the title, "The Child's Garden." It covers the entire field of gardening and gives practical information on the care of flowers, annuals, summer bulbs and plants, fruits, and berries, also how to understand and prepare soils, how to choose seeds, garden tools, sprays, etc., and the best methods of exterminating pests, irrigating, planting, and cultivating. The author is one of the best known garden experts of America. The illustrations are from exceptionally fine photographs taken by H. B. Fullerton, Chief Grub Scout of the Boy Scouts of America.

The War Garden Victorious. By Charles Lathrop Pack. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 179 pp. Ill.

This book tells the story of the growth and development of the war garden idea in the United States and of the work undertaken by the willing volunteers of the National War Garden Commission in aiding and encouraging millions of people to create new gardens or enlarge old ones and supply the homes with garden food which would otherwise have been requisitioned from the supplies necessary to the feeding of the destitute in foreign countries and for the prosecution of the war. It is estimated that the value of the food produced in last year's war gardens was \$525,000,000. The number of jars of canned vegetables and fruit believed to have been put up is 1,450,000,000. The book is delightfully illustrated with cuts of war-garden achievement and contains in appendix the pamphlets issued by the Commission. The book is not for sale, but is published in a limited edition for presentation to people interested in war gardens, and to libraries where it will be available to the public.

Fisherman's Verse. By William Haynes and Joseph Leroy Harrison. Introduction by Henry Van Dyke. Duffield & Co. 306 pp. \$1.50.

A feller isn't thinkin' mean
Out fishin';
His thoughts are mostly good and clean,
Out fishin';
He doesn't knock his fellow men,
Or harbor any grudges then;
A feller's at his finest, when
Out fishin'.

The next best thing to actually being out fishing is to read this anthology of captivating verse of the sport of gentlemen that has always been most honored by literature. The angling poems have been kept to a very high standard. Enough of the older verse has been included to give a background of tradition, and those from modern poets, which are jingles or purely literary, have been excluded. The authors' ideal has been "a companionable little book of poems by fishermen that other fishermen will want to keep." They render thanks in the preface to the many brother anglers who have helped in the making of the anthology.

NEW ESSAYS AND BOOKS OF IMPRESSIONS

IN "Paris the Magic City by the Seine,"¹ Gertrude Hauck Vonne writes of the impressions received during three years spent in Paris. The greater part of her time was devoted to seeing the city in all its phases, the wonderful works of art, the churches, theaters, gardens, all the conglomerate beauty that makes Paris the most marvelous city in the world. These things were seen in times of peace, therefore it is a pre-war Paris that she brings to American readers. It has been her thought that those who knew Paris so well in the days before the conflict would like a book of impressions gathered in a period before the war-shock fell upon the city.

The title of Dr. Georges Duhamel's book, "Civilization,"² is to be taken ironically. It is not a novel, hardly a series of essays or sketches. It seems a book of testimony against modern civilization taken down in the court of the Conscience of Mankind. It is the story of the wounded and the suffering, the men who are crippled and made miserable by the war. Not that the men themselves are not hopeful; the crippled are seldom whimperers, but their condition questions and contradicts our modern civilization. What has lain in our hearts that this catastrophe of war could rend the world? Let us be frank, Duhamel cries; let us own that it is not what we have called—civilization. Antoine, one of the most distinguished critics of France, says of the book: "If there remains there, beyond the Rhine, a single German still capable of shedding the tears with which I stained my

copy of this book, nothing is lost, the world is saved. As for me . . . I have found again in this book a light that will let me die without despairing of all things." The Goncourt prize for 1918 was given to this work.

A reprint of "The Symbolist Movement in Literature,"³ by Arthur Symons, has been enlarged and revised until the book has all the freshness of new material. Bibliography and notes have been added, also some exceedingly fine translations of poetry from French originals.

The peculiar force and power of the Brontë family grows with the years. The history of the family, their vicissitudes and adventures, their early deaths, and more than all else the piercing poignant quality of their genius, surround them with the unfading glamour of romance. The Brontës were of Celtic blood, and while, as Mrs. Humphry Ward writes, their claim is the "Romantic claim," that of George Sand and Victor Hugo, it is largely their interest in human reality, in spite of the meagerness of their experience, that holds and fascinates us. They lived in two worlds, but they subordinated the actual to the poetic, and it is Emily the rebel who penetrated farthest into this later world. It is not too great a departure from previous opinion to say, that Emily Brontë's poems and her one novel "Wuthering Heights" shine even above the genius of Charlotte, for Emily came closer to the eternal things from which man's unconquerable spirit draws its strength. In the centenary memorial prepared by the Brontë

¹Paris. By Gertrude Hauck Vonne. The Neale Publishing Company. 354 pp. \$1.50.

²Civilization. By Dr. Georges Duhamel. The Century Company. 288 pp. \$1.50.

³The Symbolist Movement in Literature. By Arthur Symons. E. P. Dutton & Company. 429 p. \$3.

Society, "Charlotte Brontë, 1816-1916,"¹ there are speeches, papers and illustrations made by the Society on the occasion of the Brontë Centenary. They contain the history of the family, and an account of the literary work of Charlotte, Anne, and Emily, hitherto undiscovered facts of their lives, and fresh criticism of their work. Gilbert Chesterton, Edmund Gosse, Professor C. E. Vaughn, and several other well-known literary authorities are represented in the symposium of articles. The volume was edited by Mr. Butler Wood, who has supplied the text with maps of the Brontë country, portraits of the sisters, and pictures of scenes in and about Haworth. For the literary student as well as the Brontë lover, it is easily the most attractive collection of essays in current book lists.

Mr. Compton Leith's prose has been compared to Walter Pater's. In "Domus Doloris,"² he writes of the great adventure of one who has reached the borderland between life and death and returned to find himself in the House of Pain nursed by those who gave their lives to hospital work in war days. And out of the mist of his experiences, told in musical prose that lures the ear with its rhythms, emerges his belief in the power for good of the discipline recently thrust upon the world and upon the individual. In the service of the hospital he sees the bravest hope for the future, for there he found the spirit of sacrifice that "builds up true selfhood."

In the readable form of a conversation between himself and a character of his creation, John Charteris, we have a most significant series of essays from James Branch Cabell.³ Successively they deal with the Demiurge, the Witchwoman, the Reactionary, the Mountebank (Dick Sheridan), the Arbiters—from Dickens to Harold Bell Wright, and "What Concerns the Contemporaries." In a closing essay "Wherein We Await" he is concerned with the future. As a whole the book pleads for "romance," which Charteris says, is the "will that stirs in us to have the creatures of earth and the affairs of earth not as they are, but as they ought to be." And he adds, "when we note how visibly it sways all life we perceive that we are talking about God." Mr. Cabell's style has the unique distinction of profundity in combination with perfect clarity; he is at heart a symbolist leading through reality to that which is eternally beautiful, an artist whose instrument is immeasurably responsive to his ideas.

A great deal of labor has been expended in bringing together the material for a literary study, "The English Village,"⁴ by Julia Patton.

¹ Charlotte Brontë. Edited by Butler Wood. With a Foreword by Mrs. Humphry Ward. E. P. Dutton & Company. 330 pp. \$4.

² Domus Doloris. By W. Compton Leith. John Lane Company. 222 pp. \$1.50.

³ Beyond Life. By James Branch Cabell. Robert M. McBride & Company. 358 pp. \$1.50.

This book discusses the treatment of the village in literature from 1750 to 1850—from Crabbe and Goldsmith to Maurice Hewlett. There is more in the field of the village in literature than appears at first notice. The beginnings of government lie there; the root of democracy, for the "town meeting" had its birth in rural settlements. The author writes that village literature connects itself on one side with the conventions of the pastoral and the Georgic with "eighteenth century sentimentalism and the romantic movements" on the other side with the growth of "a democratic spirit in an aristocratic age." The style is easy, vigorous and expressive.



CHARLOTTE BRONTË

John Singer Sargent wrote: "After all is said, Frank Duveneck is the greatest talent of the brush of this generation." In a biographical and critical essay on Duveneck and his work,⁵ Norbert Heerman shows why Sargent made this statement as early as the nineties, and upon what a solid foundation he placed his estimate of the American painter and etcher. After the death of his wife in Italy, Duveneck returned to Cincinnati,

where he has now for many years divided his time between teaching painting and advising in art matters in connection with the Cincinnati Museum. All lovers of American art will welcome this essay that gives public an appreciative estimate of one of the greatest of American artists.

A study of the life and work of Selma Lagerlöf, with portraits, has been prepared for distribution by the Doubleday, Page Co. It is not for sale, but will be mailed on receipt of postage as long as the printed copies last. The sketch is principally drawn from Dr. Lagerlöf's own autobiographical writings, and is a charmingly simple statement of her life and work and the influences that brought her literary qualities into evidence. The author, Mr. Harry E. Maule, has written most sympathetically of the woman, her work, and her message. Liberal quotations from the Swedish novelist's writings are quoted together with the text.

"English Literature During the Last Half Century,"⁶ by Professor John Cunliffe, is a book of guidance for first-hand study of the writers of the last century. Following careful estimates of the notable figures of these years, from Meredith to Galsworthy and Arnold Bennett, are three exceptionally fine chapters: "The Irish Movement," "The New Poets," and "The New Novelists." The book is especially valuable to students of contemporary literature, inasmuch as the author states, it begins where most of the histories of English literature leave off.

⁴ The English Village. By Julia Patton. The Macmillan Company. 236 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ Frank Duveneck. By Norbert Heermann. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 84 pp. Ill. \$2.

⁶ English Literature During the Last Half Century. By John W. Cunliffe. The Macmillan Company. 315 pp. \$2.

CRITICISMS OF MODERN POETRY: YEATS: LADY GREGORY: BOOKS OF AMERICAN VERSE

IT would be difficult to find a more comprehensive or illuminating work on modern poetry, or one more enjoyable to the general reader than "The New Era in American Poetry,"¹ by the well-known poet and critic, Louis Untermeyer. For the past few years critics as well as the public have had a tendency to view American poetry from the angle of one particular school. Mr. Untermeyer covers the field and embraces in his sweep of vision practically all modern American poets. Those whose work has assumed elements of novelty are treated with a catholicity and penetration uncommon in contemporary criticism. Among those that occupy the major portion of his chapters are Robert Frost, Edgar Lee Masters, Amy Lowell, Edwin Arlington Robinson, Carl Sandburg, James Oppenheim, Arturo Giovannitti, and Vachel Lindsay. Different poetic groups are discussed, also new verse forms, free verse, polyphonic prose, the revival of the chant, imagism, the poets of the magazine, *Others*, and a page or two is given to Witter Bynner's amazing hoax of the public and of the various literary groups and poetry societies with his invention of the "Spectrist School."

Minor flaws are easy to find in any work. They exist in this one. Poets will hardly agree with some of Mr. Untermeyer's conclusions on the later work of Masters, the narrative poetry of Neihardt, or understand his curious lack of sympathy with Ezra Pound's "Lustra." But in all criticism, one must remember the dictum of Saintsbury: "That is poetry to a man which produces on him such poetical effects as he is capable of receiving." The movement of American life as it is mirrored in poetry interests Mr. Untermeyer and strikes the soundest note of his critical faculties. He asks us to remember that Whitman wrote: "The Americans are going to be the most fluent and melodious-voiced people in the world, the most perfect users of words. . . . The new times, the new people, the new vista need a tongue according—yes, and what is more they will have a tongue."

There must be men who stand out from the mass now and again and remind us of facts we have forgotten; there must be a stirring of dry bones and the miracle of recreation. Professor John Livingston Lowes has reminded us in a critical study, "Convention and Revolt in Poetry,"² that poetry like all else is eternally in flux, swinging from the pole of conservatism to that of revolution from time to time in order that it may communicate to us the ideas and emotions of its creators. It is a volume of profound and searching criticism, yet one that continually fascinates by its mellowness, melodious phrasing and insight into fundamental truths. As excuse for dealing with poetry when the world was

at war, Professor Lowes writes: "Carlyle once said of Tennyson: 'Alfred is always carrying a sort of chaos around with him, and turning it into cosmos.' Well, that is poetry's job, and it is amazingly like the enterprise of life." The chapters which begin with the subject "The Roots of Convention" and run through the gamut of a lengthy discussion of poetry in all its phases, ending with a virile piece of writing, "The Anglo-Saxon Tradition," were delivered as lectures at the Lowell Institute in Boston, 1918. The author is Professor of English in Harvard University.

Forty poems by William Butler Yeats are collected under the title "The Wild Swans At Coole,"³ the title of the first poem of the book. Yeats remembers these swans, nine and fifty of them, rising to scatter in great broken rings, brilliant creatures that wander where they will, ageless, mysterious, beautiful. And this poem and practically all the others complain at the stupidity of the brevity of human life, at the fleetness of our youth, and take refuge in the images that rise from the Land of Youth, the dwelling place of the immortal *Sidhe* of Irish hero lore. Certain names used by Yeats several years ago in short stories occur in these poems—John Aherne and Michael Robartes. "They have once again" he writes, "become a part of the phantasmagoria through which I can alone express my convictions about the world. Many of these poems are of such subtle simplicity that they nearly conceal the voices that cry in them of mystery and magic. They are of the elusive brood which Paul Verlaine conjured forth *romances sans paroles*, songs almost without words, in which scarcely a sense of the interference of human speech remains." Several poems praise a woman whose loveliness lighted the years of the poet's youth. Of these "Memory" is particularly beautiful:

One had a lovely face,
And two or three had charm,
But charm and face were in vain
Because the mountain grass
Cannot but keep the form
Where the mountain hare has lain.

In the preface to "The Kiltartan Poetry Book,"⁴ Lady Gregory writes that with her knowledge of Gaelic she stepped into another world. After mastering the language, she sought and found beauty and emotion only among humble folk, farmers and potato diggers, old men in work-houses and beggars at the doors of Coole. It is in the language of these poor folk, that she has rendered the old legends and ancient heroic poems of Ireland, in the speech of "the thatched houses where I have heard and gathered them."

¹The New Era in American Poetry. By Louis Untermeyer. Holt. 364 pp. \$2.25.

²Convention and Revolt in Poetry. By John Livingston Lowes. Houghton, Mifflin. 346 pp. \$1.75.

³The Wild Swans At Coole. By W. B. Yeats. Macmillan. 114 pp. \$1.25.

⁴The Kiltartan Poetry Book. By Lady Gregory. Putnam. 112 pp. \$1.25.

The Gaelic construction, the Elizabethan phrases of the rhythmic Kiltartan give the poems a human quality; the old heroes are become people we know or used to know, dimmed a little by distance, haloed by memory.

It is good to find among the volumes of poetry books where the creative impulse was strong enough to take the longer flight of narrative poetry.



JOHN G. NEIHARDT

Whatever American poetry of this type lacks, there is little enough of it, and those who are courageous enough to enter the field should be encouraged. One asks more of poetry than the perfect lyric, more than entertainment for the moment; one asks continuity of illusion, the ability to live continuously old lives, and many of them, over again. And it is this one finds in John G. Neihardt's narrative poetry. "The Song

of Three Friends,"¹ his most recent volume in the third of a cycle of poems dealing with the fur-trade of the Trans-Missouri region in the early twenties. It is a tale of adventure and love founded on historical facts of the two expeditions of Ashley and Henry in the years 1822 and 1823. Three trappers and boatmen, their adventures, and love that turned their comradeship to strife and tragedy form the subject-matter of the tale. Mr. Neihardt succeeds admirably with his characterization of the men and in the recreating of atmosphere. No true American could read the first two sections, "Ashley's Hundred" and "The Up-Stream Men," without a thrill of patriotic devotion for the land of his birth.

Unique among the newer poets who draw their songs from the doings of everyday people is Roy Helton,² a southern mountaineer, who has come to Northern cities and seen our busy life with fresh vision. He makes verses out of almost anything, a little cash girl in a dry goods store, the cat ambulance, memories on city fire escapes, love, life, Spring, politicians, ghosts. Much of the book is careless, clever versification, odd subjects treated casually with here and there a sudden flashing of vision, an exquisite bit of poesy that shows what future lies ahead of this singer of highways and byways. The book entertains; there is not a dull poem from cover to cover.

SPANISH MUSIC: FOLK SONGS

WHEN one considers the Spanish music brought forward in New York in the season of 1915-16, one is surprised that Mr. Carl Van Vechten's book, "The Music of Spain,"³ is the only one that has been written that brings to general attention this delightful and little-known music. In that year, the picturesque opera *Goyescas*, by Enrique Granados, was given at the Metropolitan Opera House; Geraldine Farrar and Maria Gay achieved brilliant successes in Bizet's *Carmen*; Maria Barrientos, the Spanish singer made her débüt here; later Pablo Casals, the Spanish cellist, pleased appreciative audiences, also Miguel Llobet, the guitar virtuoso. Later also by a few months, there followed Joaquin Valverde's colorful revue, "The Land of Joy," with its display of Spanish costumes, dazzlingly brilliant unfamiliar Spanish dancing, and equally unfamiliar and beautiful Spanish music. Mr. Van Vechten writes of these events crisply and informationally. Three essays and notes on the text make up the volume. He says that very little of the best Spanish music is available here. Important scores are as yet unpublished and others are not listed in even the libraries. His pages on Spanish dancing are vivid. Almost one hears the tapping of slipped feet, the clink of

cascanets and sees the Goya costumes with their lace flounces, the mantillas, combs, and shawls that mean—Spain. Among the illustrations are portraits of noted Spanish dancers in costume, Mary Garden as Carmen, and an interesting portrait of the Spanish composer Tomás Bréton, head of the Royal Conservatory of Madrid. Mr. Van Vechten's previous critical works on music are: "Music and Bad Manners," "Interpreters and Interpretations," and "Music After the Great war." They are stimulating, unconventional criticisms of art and music.

A desirable volume, "My Favorite Folk Songs,"⁴ presents those songs that the famous coloratura singer, Marcella Sembrich, found gave most pleasure to her audiences during the last twelve or fifteen years. Others have been added to these selections in order to make the collection widely and comprehensively representative. Only those songs that conform to the scientific definition have been included, namely, songs actually created by the folk and not by individuals inspired by conscious art. They have rhythmic charm, melodic beauty and naïve eloquence, and Madame Sembrich writes that "when they are sung they will find an echo in the hearts of music lovers all over the world." There are fifty-nine songs drawn from the folk-music of twenty-four different nationalities.

¹The Song of Three Friends. By John G. Neihardt. Macmillan. 126 pp. \$1.25.

²Outcasts in Beulah Land. By Roy Helton. Holt. 144 pp. \$1.30.

³The Music of Spain. By Carl Van Vechten. Knopf. 223 pp. \$1.50.

⁴My Favorite Folk Songs. Edited by Marcella Sembrich. Oliver Ditson Co. 138 pp. \$1.25.

FINANCIAL NEWS

I.—WHY RAILROAD SECURITIES ARE FALLING

THE present hope of the railroads of the United States is in an early session of Congress. When the last Congress adjourned without passing the appropriation bill, which would have provided \$750,000,000 for the "revolving fund," railroad finances became badly disorganized. They are still very much under a cloud. Temporary measures have been adopted to bridge the roads over intervals when interest and dividends fall due. The War Finance Corporation has rendered a bit of help in lending against the acceptances of the Railroad Administration. But there is no broad plan in sight to support and protect the roads during the reconstruction era, or after they are returned to the owners. It is expected that this return will be effected about January 1, 1920.

For nearly two months many classes of industrial securities have been advancing. The movement in them has been similar to that which anticipated the signing of the armistice in November. Railroad securities, however, have been sluggish. They average 10 points under the best figures of the war-end month.

Next to the Government financing as carried through in the present Victory Loan nothing is of more concern to the country than an equitable readjustment of railroad finances. The situation has been drifting along month by month, with the Government getting deeper in debt to the strong roads and the weak lines rapidly increasing their debit with the Government. A score of plans to recover the railway systems to their owners or to operate them on a basis that will insure profit as well as coöperation with lines within their geographical area, has been advanced but none has so far met with approval. In railroad and financial circles the debate has now boiled down to one school that believes the Government should guarantee the railroads a fixed return on their property investment, as the only means by which they can in the future borrow for expansion or improvements, and the other which is opposed to a guarantee because of

its commitment by the guarantor to a supervision that would lead to Government control.

In June, 1918, the new railroad wage scale effect was shown in a railway deficit of nearly \$59,000,000. The cost of operation during this month increased \$200,000,000, or from \$235,000,000 to \$435,000,000. The item of transportation cost, which includes wages and fuel, doubled. In July the first benefits of the rate increase on freight and passenger service were visible. These increases caused gross receipts to mount to \$468,379,804 as against \$348,394,394 in the same month of 1917. If the July ratio had been maintained throughout 1918, American railroads would have earned gross that year of a sum equal to nearly one-third their total capitalization and approximately 40 to 45 per cent. of the current market value of their securities. It was after the remarkable performance of July had been analyzed by the Railroad Administration that predictions were made of a possible equalization in the second half of 1918 of the loss from the three-year average sustained in the first six months of federal operation. July, however, was the high-water mark. From then on there was a steady decline. In the September quarter the Government earned a surplus of over \$100,000,000 in excess of the average rental paid by it to the roads for that period, but in the quarter following, the carriers fell short of earning this rental by over \$70,000,000. For the first three months of 1919 it appeared that the net operating income of the roads would be \$125,000,000 below the three-year average for that period. Estimates have been made that, for 1919, the deficit which the Government will have to cover will be from \$450,000,000 to \$500,000,000, compared with a deficit in 1918 of about \$200,000,000.

Conditions in the second half of this year, it is believed, will materially improve. The reasons given are that in the summer and autumn months there will be considerable industrial recovery followed by improvement in traffic as a bumper wheat crop begins to move. In March gross earnings were said to

be at least 20 per cent. below those of the previous year. Some part of this loss will have to be balanced by greater efficiency in operation, by lower costs of materials and supplies used in maintenance and by a higher level of rates on certain commodities. If there is to be a never-ending cycle of wage increases there must be a corresponding advance in rates to provide funds to meet these increases.

To show how the roads have fared under federal operation the following table is presented:

	Net Operating Income—1918	Net Operating Income—3-Yr. Average
1918		
January	\$3,288,205	\$55,000,000
February	12,242,637	47,000,000
March	63,174,866	68,000,000
April	71,397,983	67,000,000
May	73,526,125	77,000,000
June	*58,969,663	83,000,000
July	137,845,425	76,000,000
August	128,123,081	88,000,000
September	99,038,750	92,000,000
October	87,106,126	95,000,000
November	57,123,335	84,000,000
December	25,000,000	73,000,000
1919		
January	\$18,783,702	\$55,000,000
February	10,015,883	47,000,000
* Deficit		

The financial aspect of the railroad situation in the United States is not very much different or any worse than that existing to-day in Great Britain, Canada, France, and Germany. There must be a wholesale overhauling of railroad accounts in the next few years and an effort made to come to such agreement with labor as will allow of a fair

return on the two or more score of billions of dollars' investment in the common carriers. All have been very hard worked during the war, so that the amount of repair work necessary will involve large expenditures and a great amount of labor for at least five years. Under the circumstances and taking into account the fact that governments will be dominating the market for funds in this period, it would seem as though some form of Government guarantee would be necessary, not only abroad but here, to permit the raising of new capital on a basis sufficient low to warrant expenditures.

In this country the effect of the abnormal traffic conditions of the war has been to bring into prominence those roads most naturally adapted to business with facilities adequate and of a quality to meet the pressure of war strain. Consequently, there is a somewhat new investment alignment in railroad securities. Shrewd investors have been making numerous changes from stocks that were regarded as standard for a generation into those that have only within ten years demonstrated their permanent values. As a whole, the better grade of stocks of railroad companies West of the Mississippi River has had preference in this new alignment to those of roads occupying the badly congested areas of the East. Fashions change in securities as in clothes. It is a very good time for the holder of railroad bonds and stocks to make an investigation of his holdings and to determine whether they have proved themselves in the war period or have been affected by conditions that may be permanent.

II.—INVESTORS' QUERIES AND ANSWERS

NEW MOTOR COMPANIES

I am considering an investment of several thousand dollars in the motor industry and will appreciate any advice and information you are able to give me with reference to good companies now organizing to manufacture automobiles, trucks, and tractors.

This is something in connection with which we are frank to say we do not feel competent to advise. The matter of putting capital into newly organized industry of any kind seems to us to partake almost altogether of the nature of a business venture, and scarcely at all of the nature of investment, and it is only on investment matters that we are prepared to undertake to serve our correspondents. We would be glad, if you were interested, to give you the essential facts about any of the established companies in this field, and we think that, after all, they are the ones which might better have your consideration. There is a great deal of irresponsible promotion in the motor industry nowadays.

MARKETABLE SECURITIES TO YIELD SIX PER CENT.

I have a few thousand dollars invested in a note which comes due in a few months. I can buy local bonds, very safe, paying 6 per cent., running a fair period of time, but having only a limited market. But could I not buy long term bonds to yield approximately 6 per cent. that would give me a higher degree of convertibility? Give me a list of three or four such securities.

There are a number of safe, marketable securities now available to yield a full 6 per cent. Witness such issues as Anaconda Copper Mines secured 6 per cents, due in 1929; American Telephone & Telegraph 6 per cents, due in 1924; New York Telephone debenture 6 per cents, due in 1939; New York Central debenture 6 per cents, due in 1935, and Wilson & Company first-mortgage 6 per cents, due in 1941.

We venture the suggestion, also, that we think your attitude in seeking securities that can be depended upon to have a reasonable market at all

times, is an altogether proper one. At least, there are pretty definite limitations to the proportion of one's surplus funds that can properly be kept tied up in securities having narrow and unsatisfactory markets, no matter how safe they may be intrinsically.

SWIFT & CO. SHARES

Is it true, as I have been given to understand, that the stock of Swift & Company pays dividends at the rate of 8 per cent. per annum? Do you consider this stock a safe investment? How does its present price compare with normal?

You are correct in your understanding about the current rate of dividend on the stock of Swift & Company being 8 per cent. It has paid this rate regularly since 1915, previous to which time it had been on a 7 per cent. per annum basis. We find the stock quoted now at a price to yield about 6½ per cent. Since the beginning of the current year it appears to have sold as high as 146 or about on a 5½ per cent. basis. Its low price for 1918 appears to have been 100½, or about an 8 per cent. basis. In 1917 our records show that its range was between 165½ and 115½. As industrial securities of its type and class go, we think Swift & Company's stock can properly be considered a good investment.

INTERBOROUGH RAPID-TRANSIT BONDS

Interborough Rapid-Transit 5 per cent. bonds, due in 1966, have been suggested to me as an attractive purchase at their present relatively low quotation. What do you think of them?

In many respects they do look attractive. Representing as they do an investment in which the City of New York has a very large proprietary interest, it is difficult to believe that they are not likely to come through all right eventually. But the traction situation in Greater New York at the present time is so unsettled and is complicated by so many things (politics among others) that are incapable of clear analysis, that we do not believe the bonds ought to be purchased by anyone unprepared to see them through a fairly long period of trouble.

STOCKS OF PACKING COMPANIES

Please give me the present valuation and dividend rates on Armour & Company preferred, Wilson & Company preferred, and Swift & Company preferred. Have these companies been able to pay their dividends regularly year in and year out?

Armour & Company preferred and Wilson & Company preferred stocks pay dividends at the rate of 7 per cent. per annum. They are quoted now about 102 and 98 respectively. Swift & Company's dividend rate is now 8 per cent., and the market price of the stock is about 123.

Of these various issues, that of Swift & Company, which, by the way, is all of one class, is the oldest and has the longest dividend record, although it has been on an 8 per cent. per annum basis for only two or three years. Previous to that time it had paid 7 per cent per annum for a long series of years. Up to last year Armour & Company had only one class of stock and that all very closely held. The preferred issue was made in conjunction with an issue of convertible bonds, and is as yet rather unseasoned market-wise. We do not think there is any question as

to the ability of the company to maintain the dividend indefinitely. Wilson & Company is likewise a relatively new and unseasoned stock, but it has what seems to us to be some very strong underlying equities and a well assured dividend position.

COLLECTING DIVIDENDS

I bought some United States Steel preferred stock the latter part of February. When will I get a dividend and how do I go about getting it?

If the stock was registered in your name on the books of the corporation, as we presume it was, you will receive by check from the corporation the next quarterly installment of the dividend on or about May first, and subsequent installments will be sent to you regularly in this way as long as you continue as the registered owner of the stock.

RAILROAD STOCKS AND GOVERNMENT OWNERSHIP

In the face of possible Government ownership, how do you regard railroad stocks, especially issues like Chicago & Northwestern?

It is very difficult, if indeed not impossible, to tell in advance what might happen to railroad stocks, if we were to become definitely committed to Government ownership of the railroads. There are probably some of the roads whose stockholders would face very well, provided the properties were taken over by the Government on the basis of anything like a fair and equitable valuation. But it is a guess pure and simple as to whether such valuation could be made fair and equitable, attended as it undoubtedly would be by political influences of all sorts. However, we do not believe the trend of sentiment at the present time is toward Government ownership, and we are, therefore, more or less favorably inclined toward the better established dividend paying stocks, like the one you mention.

NO ADVICE ON MARGIN TRADING

I am considering buying stocks on margin, giving preference to issues that are listed on the New York Stock Exchange, and would thank you for any advice you can give in connection with such transactions.

We cannot undertake to give advice in respect to the purchase or sale of active listed stocks, or indeed any other kinds of securities, on margin. Transactions of this kind partake essentially of the nature of speculation rather than investment, and it is only on investment matters that we can undertake to render service to our readers.

THREE GOOD SHORT TERM INVESTMENTS

On the advice of a friend connected with a reliable banking concern, I recently invested in American Tobacco 7 per cents of 1922, Philadelphia Company 6 per cents of 1922 and Laclede Gas Light 7 per cents of 1929. What is your opinion of this investment?

We do not hesitate to say that we think you have been well advised. The securities you mention are in our opinion of high average quality, and we can see no reason why the combination should not prove an entirely satisfactory one.